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Fringes of Babel

IN THE 1920's I was breakfasting in Paris. There was the usual and delectable hard roll—but no butter. In my best French I asked the waitress for some butter but she only brought another roll. I tried it again and received still another roll. Thoughtlessly reverting to English I said, "Would you please bring me some butter." Her reply, in excellent English was, "Well, why didn't you ask for it."

In the early 1930's my wife and I were in Berlin and wished to go to a musical comedy which was currently very popular there—tickets were hard to get. Speaking German I tried to negotiate a deal with the man at the box office. He seemed very nonplussed at my request and then said, "Please speak English, it will be much easier for both of us." Incidentally, I got the tickets without any difficulty.

Obviously I was no linguist. Yet I had been exposed to a modicum of both French and German. I had successfully hurdled the language requirements for a Ph.D. in a science. (Admittedly not a very severe test.) I had found my knowledge of those two written languages quite adequate for the translations of the scientific literature I needed in my own research work. However, I couldn't communicate with either the French or the Germans in their own tongue. Why? I wish I knew. The incidents point up my own and typical American inadequacies.

We Americans are the "travellingest" people on earth—but with respect to the languages of others we are the most provincial. Often, we still assume that anyone who cannot speak English must be stupid. Let those foreigners learn our language, if they want to do business with us. They have been doing just that, and thus subtly chipping away at the position of world leadership in which America happens to find itself. In recent years I've had occasion to make rather frequent visits to Western Europe and have found my effectiveness in various missions substantially hampered because of my language limitations. Of course one can readily "get

along" almost anywhere because hotel keepers, waiters, bellboys, station agents and most taxi drivers have learned at least enough English to serve their purposes as well as yours. It is also true that at international assemblies, such as the United Nations and many large conferences, the multilingual, instantaneous translations are a great help. But it's an awkward and expensive system. Besides, those earphones look so funny that they destroy the dignity of the meetings.

A strong case can be made that the English language is the most important one in the world today, but it is by no means the *lingua franca* that we sometimes smugly assume. It is good to see that the general public, as well as educational leaders, have become disturbed by our own linguistic inadequacies. We say we must do something about it because we have entered the Space Age. In itself, space has nothing to do with it. True, we are now able to propel objects out beyond the atmosphere and have them ramble around the inner reaches of the solar system. But we don't need to worry about mastering a Martian language. That will only be a problem of the distant future, if ever. According to the best astronomical evidence the Martian situation is: "There's nobody here but us lichens." The *implication* of the Space Age, however, is that not only things but people are far more interconnected and more intimately interrelated than they have ever been. It seems obvious that the many social and political problems cannot be handled unless large segments of the population can really communicate—not just superficially but actually.

A distinguished Kentucky Colonel, in response to an invitation: "Suh, I only refused a drink once in my life, and that was when I misunderstood the question." It would be a bit of irony if history should eventually record that permanent, world-wide peace and prosperity were refused because America was not able to understand the question.

C. C. FURNAS, Chancellor
University of Buffalo

The Advent of the Language Laboratory

THE use of mechanical equipment as an aid in foreign language teaching goes back to the first classroom adoption of the phonograph, probably not too far from the year 1900. By that time Edison's talking machine of 1877, although its sound reproduction was still far from ideal, had been perfected sufficiently to make its use as an adjunct to the talking teacher practicable. Jespersen, who incidentally predicted the use of magnetic recording equipment in language teaching, was confident in his 1904 *How to Teach a Foreign Language* that the phonograph would prove a valuable help in the hands of an able teacher. The first *Modern Language Journal* evaluation of the phonograph in language teaching, the result of over a dozen years of experience first with cylinder and then with disc records, is from 1918, the third volume of publication: the author had found the machine useful in the teaching of pronunciation at the non-earliest stage (3.116-22.18).¹ For some fifty years after its classroom adoption the phonograph continued to be the language teacher's most important mechanical aid; as late as 1948, the year of the first commercial longplay record, the phonograph was found to be the only apparatus extensively used.² During the half-century both the machine and foreign language recordings had improved. Surprisingly, language discs with stretches of silence allowing student repetition came late—an innovation of the Army language recordings of World War II.

In the 1920's a few foreign language departments, going beyond the use of the phonograph and commercial language discs, assembled in a room apart from the recitation classroom a complex of recording and listening equipment, phonographs, dictaphones, Ediphones and the like, set up hours and regulations for student use of the equipment, and called the installation and its operation a *phonetics laboratory*. Four MLJ articles (15.27-29.30; 15.30-32.30; 16.217-27.31; 16.299-305.32) discuss the phonetics laboratory at Ohio State and one (15.427-

31.31) deals with the "phonetic laboratory" at what the disapproving author refers to as University X. It is no doubt by chance that the MLJ discussions of the phonetics laboratory in language teaching are clustered in the years 1930-32. The phonetics laboratory was of course an antecedent in both thing and name of the present-day "installations of mechanical and electronic equipment to facilitate language learning by groups or by individuals . . . generally known as language laboratories."³ As a term for the latter, however, *phonetics laboratory* seems archaic in the 1950's.

No doubt part of the reason why the term *language laboratory* replaced *phonetics laboratory* for the same general type of thing in language teaching lies in the fact that the beginning of the language laboratory movement was a new start, albeit with similar means and ends, rather than a direct expansion of the limited phonetics laboratory tradition. The language laboratory and its spread is a postwar development, fostered by a climate of experimentation which was stimulated by the Army language teaching program during the war. Of tangible importance for the emergence of the language laboratory were the increasing number of commercial machines which could be adapted for language teaching, the willingness of language teachers to work with such machines, and the receptivity of school administrators to buy them. With parallels to the history of the phonetics labora-

¹ References to the *Modern Language Journal* are included in the text. The first number refers to the volume, numbers between periods to pages, and the last number to the year of publication.

² Frederick B. Agard and Harold B. Dunkel, *An Investigation of Second-Language Teaching* (Boston, New York, etc., 1948), p. 286.

³ This definition of the language laboratory is from Marjorie C. Johnston and Catharine C. Seerley, *Survey of Foreign Language Laboratories in Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education: 1957*. Office of Education Circular No. 524 (Washington, D. C., 1958), cover page.

tory, recording and playback machines were again assembled and installed, teaching materials which could be used with the machines were put together, and rules and periods for the use of the materials and machines established. The result this time was the language laboratory—and it caught on and spread as the phonetics laboratory never did. The first MLJ description of the use of a language laboratory, specifically called by that term, is that of the one at Wayne State University from 1948 (32.589–95.48). Other early MLJ descriptions are from the American University (35.616–18.51), Purdue (36.239–41.52), and the University of Tennessee (36.68–73.52).

The movement has continued to gain momentum since its early years. The term along with the thing has become firmly established and has led to such derived terms among language teachers as *laboratory experiment*, *laboratory program*, *laboratory work*, *laboratory section* with meanings as specialized as *language laboratory* itself. When a present-day language teacher hails the *laboratory method* as “the first contribution to the teaching of modern languages since 1882 when Viëtor, Paul Passy and Henry Sweet formed the *Association Internationale Phonétique*” (39.141.55), he

means of course a method which utilizes sound equipment in a language laboratory. In the pre-language laboratory age, however, a *laboratory method* without intermediary machines, was akin to the *direct method* (2.215–26.18; 10.349–55.26). In those days too the *French laboratory* could be language practice without apparatuses (12.209–12.27).

Because of the importance, deserved or not, which the postwar language laboratory with machines has assumed in language teaching, no teacher can remain today unaffected and disengaged. Some teachers view the language laboratory as opening a new millennium of language teaching; some are already becoming disillusioned. Some are eager for a chance to work with laboratory equipment; others are reluctant, but under pressure to do so. Many teachers are puzzled about the merits of various machines and set-ups. Not a few have more basic questions about results to be expected from the use of laboratory machines and the best methods of obtaining the results. The exchange of language laboratory experience will be of help to all.

B. J. KOEKKOEK

The University of Buffalo

* * *

In Israel, the various elements speak Arabic, German Yiddish, and the languages of the various countries from which the Jews have fled. At present, a determined effort is made to turn Hebrew, dead as an instrument of daily intercourse for over two thousand years, into a truly national language: official, home, cultural. It looks as though the daring attempt were succeeding.

The Hebrew experiment is a fact of the highest significance. For it proves that Man, through a deliberate effort, can impose his will upon his instrument, language. If nature were allowed to take its course, languages would split up into minute dialects, and change from generation to generation. Man intervenes, for modern man is “civilized,” “cultured”—that is to say, capable of conscious planning. Languages cannot keep their autonomy: they are contaminated by intercourse between the tribes; and they are standardized for wider currency and for permanency. They are artifacts, and imposed by political and cultural authorities; in the same way as a constitution and continuous legislation supersede blind tradition, the *mores*, the “culture” of the anthropologists. The Topsy (“jest grow’d”) theory is as obsolete as *laissez faire*.

ALBERT GUÉRARD

* * *

The Functional Language Laboratory

WHILE many language laboratories will claim to be audio-visual for instructional purposes, they are in reality audio-labs with visual fringe benefits. The reason for this lies in the design of the booths used in the laboratories throughout the country: in spite of sliding or transparent front panels, none so far have provided an unobstructed view to the front.

While the construction of semi-soundproof booths offers few problems, such a booth is of little use for any form of instruction except that by the auditory process. In order to overcome this limitation in part, sliding front panels and even glass fronts have been incorporated in booth designs. That has made it possible, within definite limits, to use some language laboratories like an ordinary classroom, namely, as long as a completely unobstructed view of the front was not necessary: the instructor's voice reaches the student in his booth, and by sighting toward the front at various angles, the student catches an occasional glimpse of his mentor, or of a section of the blackboard. Where space in the room is plentiful, the booths have sometimes been arranged radially like the spokes of a wheel with the desk as a hub, and thus a fairly good view of the front has been obtained. Besides the waste in valuable floor space, this arrangement has other drawbacks: when such a laboratory is used for the projection of pictures, the screen has to be mounted high on the wall. In fact, the lowest section of a screen must be better than 11' above the floor when a student sits 30' away from it in a booth with 54" high panels; the projector has to be located toward the front of the center aisle unless the latter is 6' wide or more; or the projector must throw its picture high above the booths, which range from 54" to 72." The use of visual material for instruction, therefore, is always a problem in most language laboratories. In addition to that, any sound coming from a loudspeaker is of necessity somewhat distorted due to the interference of from 30 to 100 side baffles which remain at all times in an upright position.

The visual limitations of the prevailing language laboratories have been successfully overcome by the development of a new language booth at UCLA which makes possible the complete utilization of auditory and visual material. We simply lower all three panels of the booth, not only the front panel but the side panels as well. No doubt this simple expedient must have occurred to many a laboratory instructor who was frustrated by the limitations of the ordinary booth; but the obstinacy of some of the sliding front panels that at times refused to budge, and the lack of a simple but effective method of securing into one unit these 24 to 36 inch high baffles were problems that begged solution. We solved these difficulties at UCLA by dividing the front and side panels of our language booths into a lower, stationary, and an upper, movable section. Proceeding from the knowledge that the eye-level of the average student seated at his desk is approximately 42" above the floor, and that the average desk is 30" high, it was possible to design a booth in which the front and the side panels are stationary to a height of 42" above the floor (the eye-level of the student), or 12" above the top of the desk, while the topmost 12" of the booth, from 42" to 54", are movable and can be lowered by hinges to the height of the stationary panels, i.e., 42" above the floor. Thus with the movable baffles in a lower position, each booth has a height of only 42" and each student sitting in his booth enjoys a completely unobstructed view of the whole laboratory area. The laboratory room can therefore—besides its use as a conventional language laboratory—be used for regular classroom instruction. The laboratory space can be used 100% instead of standing idle at times other than the ordinary laboratory periods. This feature should have special appeal to smaller language departments which at present cannot justify the remodeling of a classroom for laboratory purposes when the room will be used only from 25 to 50 percent of efficiency. The conversion of the language

booths from one use to another takes about 15 seconds; the use of piano hinges on both front and side panels makes the operation fool-proof.

Once the problem of the booths had been solved satisfactorily, the location of the master console and of the projection equipment in the UCLA laboratory offered no difficulties. Both a slide projector and a 16 mm sound film projector are operated from a movable carriage at the rear of the room. A wall plug behind the projection station will connect the film's soundtrack to the loudspeaker in front, thus making possible hi-fidelity reproduction. The connection also permits us to make live comments by using a microphone. The screen in front is at a normal height.

The master console in front of the blackboard is a flat-top desk, 40" high; with its lids closed it doubles as the instructor's desk. U-shaped in design, it contains one high fidelity turntable (Rek-O-Kut, Rondine) with a 35-watt amplifier (Bogen 130), and a GE pre-amplifier, besides four master tape recorders, plus one open position for equipment that might be developed in the future. Each of the six positions on the console is wired to a selector switch in each of the 30 student booths so that by setting his selector switch to a desired channel, the student can pick up a maximum of six different programs or, with his selector switch at zero, use his machine independent of the master console. Students at five different levels of instruction can use the laboratory simultaneously, plus a number of independent users.

Each student booth contains a tape recorder with earphones, a microphone mounted on a gooseneck, and a selector switch with six positions. The choice of tape recorders for the Germanic Languages Laboratory¹ was motivated by the following considerations: high fidelity of sound reproduction, ability to record without erasure a full-length program, simplicity and speed in locating a recorded exercise with the use of the digital selection locator, the growing use of tape recorders in the home and with it the practicability of the use of dubbings by our students at home, the ease with which tape recorders can be serviced nowadays in the community and finally, the interest which a new invention holds for our mechanically-minded younger generation. The two disadvantages

generally associated with the use of tape recorders namely, the greater number of controls and the chances of tape breakage, have been overcome to a large extent by the use of interlocking push-button controls which are fool-proof, and the use of unbreakable tape, or tapes of greater tensile strength, and by better, precision-built machines. We taught over 500 students the use of the equipment during the first week of the semester by simply using a prepared, 25 minutes long instructional tape. We had no problems or breakage of equipment. The tape breakage in our laboratory has been on an average of one tape per week, or after approximately 750 hours of usage. A number of students, as was expected, have acquired tape recorders for home use and some students make dubbings regularly for study at home.

But a language laboratory is hardly worth its price if the instructor's talents are ignored in guiding and supervising the students' efforts. This is done in our laboratory through a monitoring system located in a soundproof booth, 6½×6½ feet in size, built into the front of the laboratory adjacent to the console. A switchboard with 30 toggle switches and a telephone plug for earphones permits the instructor to listen to the work of any student in his booth by merely flipping a switch. Thus there is no distraction, no unnecessary noise from movement and conversation, no nervousness on the part of the student, or "teacher-watching." An inter-communication system has been planned for the coming year. While supervision is very desirable and, I believe, necessary in order to prevent one uninterested individual from disturbing a whole class, it was not our primary reason for establishing the monitoring system. Its main purpose is to help the student with any problems he may encounter, whether pedagogical or technical. Let me illustrate: During a reading or pronunciation practice the monitor hears a student, or students, mispronounce certain words or sounds. He makes a note of this and talks to the student either in the monitoring booth, or after class. Since the monitoring booth has been soundproofed, such conversation does not disturb the rest of the students. A large double-paned window, more-

¹ At UCLA, the French Laboratory uses magnetic discs.

over, permits the instructor to keep an eye on the laboratory while monitoring, permits any student to signal to the instructor if his presence is needed.

How valuable such a soundproof monitoring booth is, we discovered soon when one instructor had a student in his class who was hard of hearing. Her hearing aid permitted her to understand the spoken word in the classroom, but the use of earphones was beyond her ability. During each lab period her instructor went over the practise material with her in the monitoring booth.

Also, the technical assistance furnished by the monitoring system has been of great value in the production of the master tapes. As the instructor listens to the student's response or hears an occasional spontaneous remark, he learns whether the material on the master tape is too hard or too easy, too fast or too slow, whether the pauses for answering are too short or too long, whether the exercise interests the student or not. The observations of the instructors have been of great value in improving on the types of exercises and on the mechanics of recording them.

One more advantage of the monitoring system should be mentioned. By connecting the monitoring switchboard with a tape recorder, we can record each student's voice from his own booth. Let us assume all students have been told to read carefully a certain passage and that they will be tested on it for pronunciation. A seating chart tells the instructor the position of each student. As the instructor turns a switch on the monitoring unit, he records the student's voice. He can identify the student by simply speaking his name into the microphone that is connected to the tape recorder, then turn on the student's voice. Depending on the performance of the testee, the recording may be of 15 seconds' or of 2 minutes' duration. The instructor is able to monitor the student's voice during this test and to record a grade. When such a pronunciation test is played back to the entire class over the loudspeaker, the students can comment on the pronunciation and thus develop an ear for the correct spoken language. Those instructors who like to make a one to two minute pronunciation test every month of their students' voices, do not have to handle

each student's tape, thread it on their own machine, locate the right spot, rewind and take it off. Many valuable minutes are lost by the mere mechanics of the process. With our arrangement, a two minute oral test takes two minutes to check, not five. Having watched the cumbersome procedure of assaying the students' progress by listening to recordings made on his own tape, we are persuaded that our central recording facility is a time saver par excellence.

Since our laboratory instruction is closely integrated with the classroom work, we have to make our own master tapes. This, naturally, requires a soundproof recording booth. Opposite the monitoring booth at the front of the laboratory a $6\frac{1}{2} \times 6\frac{1}{2}$ foot recording booth was built, in design similar to the monitoring room. The ordinary operation of the laboratory does not interfere with the production of tapes unless the loudspeaker in the lab is being used.

Our instructors monitor their students and not the master tape. Once the instructor has started the master machine, he need pay no attention to it until the end of the hour when he stops it. You may wonder what happens when the students have to rewind and listen to their own recordings. Our lab practices consist generally of 2 to 4 minute units of grammatical drill, pronunciation exercises, vocabulary building, questions and answers, readings and translations, etc. After the student has been advised by way of the master tape what to do in the next exercise, he is asked to check his selection locator, i.e., a visual digital meter which shows how much tape has run past the recording head. The numbers run from 000 to 999. The student remembers or writes down the number shown at the beginning of an exercise and rewinds to it for listening and comparing at the end of the practice. On our machines 10 digits equal 1 minute in time at $3\frac{3}{4}$ " i.p.s., 20 at $7\frac{1}{2}$ " i.p.s. When the student has been told to rewind, listen, and compare, we let the master tape run forward without a recording for the same number of digits that it took to make exercise "A." We add 5 digits, or one half minute, to that time for rewinding. Since the digital meter is very clear and quite accurate, and the rewind fast, we find the extra half a minute to be enough. As soon as the student has finished

listening to his recording, he stops his machine. He is alerted to the beginning of the next program by a countdown which he can hear with his machine in the stop position. The countdown coming from the master tape consists of the days of the week, the names of the months, numerals, letters of the alphabet, etc., in German. Any student who has not finished listening to his recording is alerted by his fellow students in the same row as soon as the countdown starts. Inexorably the tape moves on and the procrastinator cannot hold up an entire class. The instructor, moreover, can devote his time to his primary duties in the lab such as monitoring and assisting students with their language problems instead of being a pedagogical "disc jockey." A script on the master console tells the instructor what is on the tape, written instructions inform him which channel carries what program, in addition to the number on the selection locator at which each program begins and ends.

Live comments by the instructor at the console can also be recorded on the student's tape thus permitting variations in the laboratory exercises in line with each instructor's individuality, ability, and preference without, however, affecting the contents of the master tape. It is therefore possible for an instructor to "teach" his lab session combining the best features of his classroom practices with laboratory exercises. This arrangement makes the instructor to some extent independent of the prepared tape, gives greater flexibility to the lab exercises and frees the experienced but always busy teacher of the time consuming task of pre-recording all his master tapes.

We usually play a German folksong half way through the lab session. The loudspeaker is most often used for this purpose and affords the students an opportunity to take off their earphones and to relax. If the first part of the lab exercises ends at No. 280 on the selection locator (starting from 000), the instructor knows that the song comes exactly 28 minutes after he has started the master tape. When No. 280 has been reached, he stops the tape and starts the song, which also comes from the tape. At the end of the song he continues with the first machine for the remainder of the lab period.

To make sure that the lab session is felt as an integral part of the course, the instructor finds a number of suggestions for quizzes and reviews on the script to be used in the next regular class meeting.

So far I have referred to the use of the lab in elementary classes only, but the upper division courses also make use of its facilities. A number of German classical dramas have been recorded on discs. The availability of the lab for such performances obviates the cumbersome moving of phonographs, extension cords, records, etc., and the setting up of the equipment in the classroom. With the booths in a lowered position, the students can listen in our lab to a performance of, let us say, Schiller's *Kabale und Liebe*, while following the text with their eyes. The high fidelity reproduction and the soundproofing of the room add to the enjoyment of the listening.

The demand upon the lab has been such that we have been able to set aside only one hour per week for conversational German exclusively. Here we shall have to make a readjustment to permit greater use for conversational needs.

One may ask to what extent the lab has been used for visual instruction since the booths permit a full range of visual aids. Besides using the lab in a course in German Civilization with slides and opaque projections, and its use as a regular classroom for a part of a class in physical science readings, we have shown a film to 22 sections of German 1 and German 2. By playing first the English soundtrack of the film, then in a second showing a German soundtrack made by us and synchronized with the slower moving soundless film, we gave the students an opportunity to associate the German sound with the picture and the already known content. After the two showings of the film, about 13 and 17 minutes respectively, the students heard the German soundtrack independently. Several instructors who checked on the students' understanding of the German comment without the film found that some students were able to tell what scenes the spoken words referred to. Since these students had had but seven weeks of German, a greater use of films and visual aids in language learning seems to be advisable.

An input jack in the wall behind the projector, which connects with the loudspeaker in front, allows us to operate the machinery with a minimum of cable length. No wires clutter the floor to cause accidents and interruptions of the program. By switching the tape recorder of the booth nearest the projector to the loudspeaker, the taped comments can be started by the projectionist right from his station; there is no lost motion, and synchronization with the film is simple and easy. If it should be considered desirable, the soundtrack can also be played over the students' earphones, and comments on pictures or slides can be given *viva voce* over the loudspeaker or earphones by plugging a microphone into the projector's sound system, or by using the amplifier system of a tape recorder, or of the hi-fi unit.

The short period of the lab's operation has so far prevented any extensive use of slides and opaque projections in the beginning courses; however, we expect to make use of both in experiments on vocabulary building and in con-

versation courses. The course in German Civilization does use the equipment to show German art and life, and it enlivens the study with musical presentations from Germany's past and present played over the hi-fi system.

Almost 6000 miles away from Germany and Scandinavia, the language laboratory brings these foreign countries, their languages and the products of their cultures to the student, gives him a fuller understanding of these peoples and their contributions to Western civilization, and at the same time teaches their language and literatures more efficiently and more interestingly. By stimulating a greater interest in language learning, we have achieved our first goal; our next one will be the development of teaching methods and aids for a more efficient use of the time available to us.

A cost list of equipment now in use, and specifications for the arrangement of the laboratory booths are appended.²

WILLIAM F. ROERTGEN

University of California, L. A.

² The following equipment is presently in use in the laboratory. (Prices quoted are retail.)

35 Ampro tape recorders, Model 758, ea.	\$249.95	1 Bogen 35 watt amplifier, Model DB 130	117.50
35 Electro-Voice crystal microphones #915, ea.	13.00	1 GE pre-amplifier, Model UPX 0038	12.77
34 sets of earphones, Mytron, Model N-130, ea.	10.00	30 semi-soundproof student booths, audio-visual, ea.	108.67
35 earphone adapters, Switchcraft, ea.	2.15	34 chairs, ea.	17.00
30 Atlas goose necks and adapter flanges, ea.	1.98	1 master console	487.94
100 Scotch brand tape, 111-A, 1200 feet, ea.	3.50	2 tables (for recording and monitoring booths), ea.	47.11
1 tape splicer, Gibson Girl, Model TS-4	6.00	Audio-visual blinds for 8 windows @ 50¢ per sq. foot	80.00
1 tape eraser "Jiffy Rase"	21.60	Wiring, AC, sound, switches, plugs, jacks	1074.55
1 Pixmobile	32.95	Adaptation of room for laboratory use	
1 Bell and Howell "Filmosound," 16 mm sound projector	459.97	Specifications of the UCLA language booth on which a patent is pending:	
1 screen	65.00	Total height above the floor	54"
1 Rek-O-Kut "Rondine" 3 speed turntable, Model B12	91.55	Height of table top	29"
1 Gray pickup arm (viscous damped) Model 108C	39.95	Height of stationary sections	42"
1 GE cartridge (dual diamond), Model RPX 053A	34.74	Height of movable sections	12"
1 Base for turntable and arm, Acousticraft Model 1700-22	18.00	Dimensions of table in booth	21"×32"
1 University Speaker, 15" diffaxial, Model 315, mounted in speaker enclosure, Acousticraft Model 515LM22	198.58	Length of side baffles	30"
		Width of aisles between rows of booths	25"
		Thickness of acoustic partitions	14"

* * *

Last year the American Dependents' Schools in Germany were teaching German to more than 35,000 American children in Grades I through VIII.

The Functions of the Language Laboratory

THE work of the language laboratory may be divided into parts according to its objectives. Obviously, the most important is the aural-oral objective, as a substantial part of the work in the laboratory has as its aim the improvement of the students' ability to understand and to produce the spoken tongue. But the grammar objective and the remedial functions of the language laboratory are also becoming increasingly significant, as the laboratory demonstrates more and more its effectiveness in the area of grammar instruction and its facility for meeting individual student needs. We shall consider each in turn.

A. The Aural-Oral Objective

A passage is read to the student, with pauses after each phrase during which he repeats. Having recorded the model pronunciation with his own imitation he is given time to listen to his recording and to compare. Theory has it that by this comparison he will become aware of his deficiencies and correct them. Let us see to what extent this method actually works.

A student working alone can be expected to correct certain gross errors, that is, by listening to his speech and that of the model. In this category one may include errors which correspond more or less to phonemic distinctions in his native tongue, and features of stress and intonation. For example, he may learn by himself that the combination *o-i* in French is pronounced *wa*, that in Spanish one says *teLEfono*, and that a change of intonation suffices to change an Italian statement into a question. The laboratory plays an important role in bridging the gap between the way things look and the way they sound; between the written and the spoken language. We may expect that regular use of the laboratory will instill in the student certain habits of minimum accuracy in pronunciation. He will soon be saying *université*, automatically placing the accent on the last syllable, even if we have never explicitly taught him to do so. Thus the laboratory serves

an important function in the early phase of language learning, by creating good habits without waiting for the teacher to hear and correct each and every error of the individual student.

On the other hand in order to use a laboratory with maximum efficiency one must be aware of its limitations and of what can be done to overcome them. Linguists are in agreement that an untrained person like our average student soon reaches a limit in his power to criticize his own pronunciations. Putting the matter in linguistic terms, the student will hear unfamiliar phonemes as mere allophones of familiar phonemes. In other words, an American student will tend to hear the *u* of French *vue* as nothing more than a peculiar pronunciation of *oo* as in English *boot*. When he tries to say *vue*, he will say *vous*, and if told to say it like the model, he will reply that he *is* doing so. The simple fact is that he cannot readily hear the difference between *vue* and *vous* any more than most of us could hear the distinction between glottalized and nonglottalized sounds in certain Caucasian languages, or between the same word spoken at different levels of pitch (and therefore having different meanings) in Chinese. If he were in France, the student would soon become painfully aware of the need for distinguishing *nu* (naked) from *nous* (we, us). The amused reactions of the listeners would provide a painful lesson in phonetics. But the student studying a language in our schools has no such guidepost to tell him when his pronunciation is faulty. Thus he cannot be expected, if left to his own devices with a recording machine before him, to correct his own pronunciation. This being the case, what measures can be taken to use the facilities of the laboratory for the improvement of pronunciation? The steps to be taken are two: supervise his work, and train him to hear the necessary distinctions.

The work of supervising students in the laboratory usually devolves upon the regular teacher, though some institutions are able to

provide someone for this purpose alone. On the one hand, the regular teacher knows his students best and can survey their individual progress. On the other hand, a laboratory supervisor may have somewhat more experience in the effective use of these facilities, and may perhaps be a specialist in the improvement of accent. In any event, the person in charge of the laboratory hour must circulate among the students, listening to each for a few moments, and pointing out areas of difficulty of which, as we have pointed out, the student may be unaware. This supervisory work should be done in some systematic fashion, as, for example, with a laboratory chart on which each student's problems and progress are noted. Though it is also possible for the teacher to listen to all the students one at a time from some central control position (most installations include this possibility), some teachers consider it preferable to circulate among the students so as to correct each at once, and to maintain a human contact in the mechanical world of the laboratory. In pointing out the limits within which the machines may be expected to be effective, we have reaffirmed the fact that *the laboratory is in no way a substitute for the teacher*, but is simply intended to relieve him of the drudgery of repeating certain exercise material over and over. The machines are the docile servants of the creative teacher.

Because the teacher cannot be with each student during all the time the latter is comparing his speech with that of the model, it is important that students be taught the rudiments of phonetic observation. That is, they must be trained to make the distinctions which are strange and difficult for them. They will later put this training to use when they come to imitate the model speaker. In certain languages, such as Spanish, this is a relatively easy matter, though, of course, the more perfection of accent we wish our students to attain, the more we shall have to train them. French, on the other hand presents numerous problems, because of its rounded front vowels, like *u* and *ø*, and the importance it attaches to the distinction between oral and nasal vowels. It would seem, therefore, that there should be a period of training early in a language course, during which the student would be taught to distinguish and to produce the difficult sounds of the

language. Note that these two skills, recognition and production, are not the same. If a student can produce either of two sounds accurately on demand, then he can probably distinguish them when said by another; the converse, that if he can hear them he can say them, is not necessarily true, though hearing a distinction is certainly the first step toward learning to imitate it.

B. The Grammar Objective

The laboratory is as useful in teaching grammar as it is in instilling good pronunciation habits. It copes with two of the major problems of grammar instruction: the need for more exercise material than the instructor usually has available, and the need for a transition from a theoretical mastery of a grammar point to an ability to apply the point orally with ease. The latter is a direct attack on the failing implied by the frequently heard criticism: "My Johnny studied French for three years, but he can't say a word."

A student can have as much oral drill in ten minutes in the laboratory as he can have written drill in several hours at home or in the classroom. The reason for this is that oral drill does away with the time-consuming task of writing out sentences. A typical ten-minute exercise may contain as many as sixty sentences, all built around the same point of grammar. Think how many hours it would take to write out those sixty sentences. We are not suggesting that written drill be done away with, for the student can never learn to spell correctly without actually writing things out. However, the assimilation of an element of grammar seems easier when it is not confused with considerations of spelling, the more so since a certain percentage of the time spent in written drill is taken up with writing out words used in the sentences but not directly related to the point at hand. The laboratory provides tapes containing large numbers of sentences pertinent to a particular grammar lesson. For example, the student may be given a sentence like: "John gave the book to Mary" and asked to replace the direct and indirect objects by pronouns. Or he may be given a sentence in the present tense and asked to repeat it in a different tense. The possibilities are almost endless and provide a

challenge to the ingenuity of the teacher who prepares the materials. The student who exercises in this fashion is not only assimilating an element of grammar, he is doing so in a way which makes him master of it, capable of reproducing it at will without passing through the well-known cycle of remembering the rule, applying it as though on paper, and then trying to stammer it out orally. Having had much practice in saying these things automatically, under the gentle nudging of time pressure from the exercise tape where the next sentence is always about to come up, the possibilities are far greater that the student will be capable of saying something in the foreign language when he leaves the classroom.

Two sciences, linguistics and psychology, have assisted in the development of appropriate grammar exercises for use in the laboratory. Linguistics has for some time recommended the kind of drill in which model sentences are used, with a single element varied until that element has been mastered. For example, in treating object pronouns, we may wish to begin by practicing the direct object in sentences like "I saw the book; I saw it. I saw the man; I saw him." (Of course the sentences are always given in the foreign language. There is rarely, if ever, need for translating from English in the laboratory.) From the direct object we proceed to a similar drill on the indirect object, and finally to both together. Assuming the rules have been taught in class, and that we then exercise in the laboratory, the entire drill may take no more than fifteen minutes, or slightly longer at the high school level. By the end of the drill the students are so conditioned to hearing "Je le lui donne" or "Se lo doy" that they are henceforth incapable of saying or writing the pronouns in the wrong order. In this way we have circumvented the need for a cumbersome rule concerning the position of pronouns, and have directly instilled the knowledge in each student.

One of the questions which has been most carefully investigated in psychological experiments is that of the effects of reward on behavior. The evidence is clear that reward motivates learning, and that immediate reward is a more powerful stimulant than delayed reward. These principles find direct application in the

language laboratory. We give the student a sentence like "I see the man" and ask him to say it in the compound past tense. The sentence presents difficulties, such as remembering the past participle, and finding the correct form of the auxiliary verb. We assume that these have been studied in the usual fashion in the classroom. Now, when confronted with the sentence "I see the man" and told to say it in the present perfect, the student tries to apply what he has learned. He forms in his mind some hypothesis as to what the correct response may be. He gives this response during the pause in the tape. The very next thing he hears is the correct answer. If his sentence was correct, he has the immediate pleasure of having this fact confirmed; he has been reassured of his understanding of the point at hand; he knows he is on the right track. (The psychologist would call this "immediate reinforcement.") If his response was not correct, he is apprised of this fact at once, rather than allowing his bad habit to perpetuate itself. Compare this teaching situation with the usual one in which exercises are corrected at the end, after the student has been allowed to make the same error over and over. Clearly there are advantages to the method of immediate correction, provided that the student really tries to give the answer, and does not merely wait until it is given to him. This brings up the problem of motivation in the laboratory.

C. The Remedial Function

Thus far we have considered the various uses to which the laboratory can be put as an integral part of the language course. There remains to be mentioned the role of the laboratory in helping the individual student with his individual problems. Most language teachers feel the existence in the classroom of a constant struggle between the needs of the class as a group and those of the individuals who make up the group. If we could teach Jimmy orally he'd make more progress; if we could go more slowly, Mary would understand better; Jane is ahead of the class and should be given a more enriched program. In practice, we compromise these conflicting interests and achieve a balance which is fairly good for all, but not ideal for any. The laboratory has as one important function to suit

the instruction to each and every student. Jimmy can have his oral learning by spending extra time in the laboratory, mastering the grammar exercises as they are presented orally. Mary can keep up with her class by going over and over the same material at her own rate of speed. And Jane can be given the added cultural material, or the rapid advancement which she is capable of absorbing.

If the laboratory is to perform to its full capacity, it must be kept open at hours when students are free to use it, and the students must be encouraged to do so. By asking each teacher for no more than one or two extra hours per week, the laboratory can be staffed with competent personnel. The material to be used during the remedial periods is the same as that used in regular class sessions, supplemented by cultural materials if needed. Students are persuaded to attend when it is pointed out to them that they have no excuse for not knowing their work, since they can learn it at their own pace and in their own time. Teachers may wish to make extra hours in the laboratory compulsory for poor students.

D. The Laboratory Atmosphere

To the school, the laboratory represents a sizable investment. As seen by the students, it may appear to be a house of gadgets. To make certain that the laboratory is taken as a serious place of study and that the equipment is not damaged beyond ordinary wear and tear, a few precautions are advisable. Classes should gather outside the laboratory and come in as a group just as the period starts. In this way there is no congregating of students in little social groups within the laboratory itself. Students are instructed that when they enter the laboratory they are to cease talking among themselves and sit down immediately in their assigned places. At the end of the hour they must leave the equipment in good order (hang up earphones, etc.) and not talk until they are outside. At all times an atmosphere of quiet and study is maintained in the laboratory, as though in a library. These measures, if they are imposed from the beginning in a firm manner, are accepted by the students as necessary and correct, particularly when the need for protecting valuable equipment is pointed out. If one neg-

lects these rules at the beginning, it is a great deal more difficult to impose them later on. The teacher can contribute to the creation of a favorable atmosphere by going about his business in a quiet, orderly manner. This means he must plan his laboratory sessions in advance, so as to know what the order of events is to be during the class hours. This is even more necessary in the laboratory than in the classroom, due to the time needed for placing the tapes on the machines, finding the right spot on the tape, and setting the switches which send the right program to the right part of the room.

There is also a distinct tendency in the laboratory for the student to simply relax and listen, rather than actively trying to perfect his accent or his understanding of a point of grammar. What can be done to overcome this tendency? There are several means at our disposal. First, the work should be varied to avoid fatigue and boredom. This means that a number of drills or exercises should be presented during the laboratory hour, and that they should be of different kinds. For example, one may present, in a single hour: 1) a passage to be recorded and played back; 2) a grammar drill; 3) a song; and 4) another grammar drill. A song can be useful as a device for relaxation; it takes less than 10 minutes to repeat the words in unison and then sing the song. The time is well spent, since it permits concentrated work before and after.

Secondly, the work should be challenging. In this, there is no formula for success. The climate of the laboratory, like that of the classroom, has a subtle and elusive chemistry. The better teacher is the one who succeeds in interesting the students in the subject matter, over and above the scramble for marks. In this regard, the principle of immediate reinforcement already mentioned can render great service, for the student knows he will find out right away whether or not he is correct, rather than having to wait until some relatively distant time to receive his guidance and reassurance, at which time he may no longer care.

Thirdly, a certain amount of pressure should be exerted upon the students, in the form of frequent quizzes. Immediately following a few minutes of grammar drill, a few more examples of the same drill are used as a quiz, usually re-

quiring very short written answers. The answers are marked on a sheet with numbered lines that each student has before him. Five or ten brief questions usually suffice. Such a quiz takes five minutes at most, and has several beneficial effects. Knowing they may be quizzed at any time, the students must concentrate on their drill work. Then, too, the teacher knows from the quiz responses whether the drill has been effective, and which students have failed to benefit by it. By keeping in close contact with such quiz results, the person who prepares the drills can constantly improve his techniques.

On the topic of testing, it should also be pointed out that the laboratory provides one of our most effective testing situations. Quizzes administered orally, with written answers, are economical of time and can thus be given frequently. They elicit brief responses on a prepared form, and can thus be corrected very rapidly. In order to succeed in them, the student must have a certain comprehension of the spoken language, in addition to knowing the grammar point involved. The laboratory also makes feasible the testing of speaking ability. Students can record, on their individual tape or disc, their responses to a series of oral questions, or else each student's delivery can be recorded by the teacher at some central place. In this way, progress in integrating new knowledge into a real ability to communicate in the foreign tongue can be measured in a systematic fashion heretofore impossible.

Summary and Conclusions

We have reviewed the function of the Language Laboratory in foreign language instruction, particularly in connection with the *spoken* language. As an aid to aural-oral ability, the laboratory can create good basic speech habits and, with the teacher's collaboration, can bring about an acceptable pronunciation. As for grammar instruction, the laboratory can provide large quantities of drill material in a minimum amount of time. The principles of single emphasis and immediate reinforcement add to the effectiveness of grammar drill in the laboratory. The laboratory makes possible new

and more effective testing of student progress. Finally, the remedial function suits the language course to the individual ability of each student.

The question is frequently raised as to the effectiveness of the laboratory; is it worth the investment it requires? No conclusive experimental evidence is available on this score, though a number of studies are under way. *It is certain that those who believed the laboratory would solve all problems of language instruction were doomed to disappointment. However, there appears to be little doubt that the laboratory supplements the teacher and renders the teacher's efforts more fruitful.* It permits the student to hear the language spoken perfectly, though his teacher may not be a native. It adds new voices to the student's experience. It provides more concentrated doses of the foreign tongue than he could normally hear. Most important, it helps him in his stumbling steps toward mastery of a strange tongue by providing incentive and guidance, yet kindly cloaking his errors in anonymity. I knew that our laboratory was doing its job by the remark of a teacher of beginning French, who had always been rather suspicious of its effectiveness. He noticed that his students were making far fewer errors in the order of object pronouns than previous years' experience had led him to expect. The difference was that they had drilled this orally in the laboratory. As a result, they had no more theoretical knowledge of the grammar rules than previous classes, but they had so developed the habit of saying "Je le lui donne" or "Je la leur donne" that no other order sounded right to them. The process of making right things sound right to the students is the process of teaching them the language. Because of the highly individual nature of the task, it is difficult to measure progress validly. Yet, if we believe that there is more taking place in the educational process than what our tests can measure, then we can accord to the language laboratory its due credit in turning out students better equipped than their predecessors to use a foreign language.

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Ideal Language Laboratory Equipment

THE purpose of this article is to ask teachers to think about language laboratory equipment and how it can best fit into their work. According to the 1957 "Survey of Foreign Language Laboratories," by Miss Marjorie C. Johnston of the U. S. Office of Education (circular #524), there are now only 261 language laboratories reported in the United States. There are at least 40,000 high schools and colleges in the country. All should have language laboratories and all eventually will, since they are necessary not only for foreign languages but for public speaking, speech correction, drama, and many other fields. Now is the time, before the rest of the forty thousand laboratories are built, for language teachers to determine what equipment they need and to insist that they get it.

We can and must abandon our previous passive attitude toward language laboratory equipment. We have been letting teaching methods be dictated to us by the manufacturers of equipment which was not designed for language teaching and which is suited to it only to the extent that we modify our teaching methods. But the day is passing when the language teacher needs to be at the mercy of the salesman. Through the efforts of a committee* which emerged from one of the special Conferences sponsored by the Modern Language Association of America in 1957, information is being collected from those who have been using language laboratories as to what they would really like to be able to do if they were able to start over with ideal equipment.

Since different teachers will always and properly prefer different methods, no one set of specifications will produce equipment to suit all, but some considerations like simplicity, trouble-free operation, and true-to-life tone are sure to have general appeal. Unfortunately we do not know all the facts on which to base ideal specifications even in these categories—partly because we do not yet have a complete

census of teachers' opinions and partly because certain tests have never been made.

Present language laboratory equipment is of many kinds. A 1956 survey of Prof. P. N. Trakas of Davidson College listed 22 different makes in use. In spite of this variety, none of them has been entirely satisfactory. It is for this reason that three years ago the author started consulting with electrical engineers in the hope of designing recording and playback equipment specifically for the language laboratory application. Shortly afterward, Prof. Elton Hocking, Head of the Department of Modern Languages at Purdue, joined the effort, and since then we have been carrying on a dual task: first, to arrive at a list of criteria to which the equipment should measure up, and second, to discover or build the right equipment.

The causes of dissatisfaction with the commercial machines are numerous. A serious one is the question of mechanical and electrical maintenance. For any laboratory of substantial size in regular use, daily visits by a technician are desirable if not essential. At Purdue the repairman comes twice a day, fixing and adjusting anything which has gone wrong. One or two positions have to be kept as spares to which students can be moved if something does go wrong with the recorder at their position. Of those replying to Prof. Trakas' questionnaire, 29% reported that "repair of equipment is a major and constant problem." Breakage or spillage of tape on the floor may delay a whole class. Some recorders are worse than others in this respect. What is needed is positive acting controls that "fail safe"; that is, no wrong move by student or teacher should interrupt the class work.

* The 45-member group, the National FL A-V Advisory Committee, is directed by Professors George Borglum of Wayne State U., Pierre Delattre of the U. of Colorado, Bruce Gaarder of Louisiana State U., Elton Hocking of Purdue U., and Jeanne Pleasants of Columbia U. Address inquiries to Professor Gaarder in Baton Rouge, La.

Quality of reproduction is so bad in many installations that it is literally impossible to distinguish between such consonants as *f*, *s*, and *th*, or the German *ch*'s. Hundreds of syllables in every language thus become indistinguishable. Teachers are often disappointed in the results of lab work and with just cause. If you who read this are unhappy about the progress of your students, look first at the earphones. In an estimated 50% of the installations in the country the earphones are so poor that they cut the quality of the system below the worst telephones. Another weak link may be the microphones. In dozens of lab installations good tape recorders with excellent amplifiers are connected to \$3 microphones or earphones costing as little as 40 cents, which immediately reduce the carrying capacity of the system to something like European telephone lines (3000 cycles per second vs. 3500 in the U. S.). Even American telephones fail to transmit the lower and upper frequencies necessary for discriminating many consonants. Language laboratories must be better than that, but they can be better only if every link in the electronic chain is up to specifications. As the engineers say, it is the frequency response of the entire system that counts, not that of any one part.

We have put up with poor quality partly because we have not known how to insist on good quality. There are no easy tests for frequency response and salesmen in this field consistently misrepresent their product. At the 1957 meetings of the Modern Language Association in Madison, Wisconsin, a special conference was held under the chairmanship of Prof. J. Collins Orr of Purdue to discuss language laboratories and their equipment. A questionnaire was circulated to try to determine the ideals toward which we should work. Since then tentative specifications have been drawn up, based on the replies plus some "educated guessing" by the author, and his engineering colleagues at M.I.T. The approach taken was to ask ourselves what would be the simplest possible system that would do everything we would ask of language laboratory equipment. The word "simplest" is interpreted to mean a minimum of moving parts, a minimum of mechanical operations to be carried out by student or teacher, and long service with a minimum of

maintenance. Ideally, the whole system should be completely automatic, with no moving parts under the control of students or teacher—even the simplest mechanical operations take up class time which should be reserved for language learning. Moreover, the operation of any machine is distasteful to a large number of our colleagues.

Another way to express our aim would be to say that we are trying to design a system which will provide all the advantages of a language laboratory for even the least mechanically inclined student and teacher. The mechanical and electronic specifications below reduce equipment at the student's position to a microphone, earphones with loudness control, record—listen switch, and a pilot light. The teacher has a microphone, earphones, a switch for listening to individual students or talking to them, pilot light showing when the student is recording, and a channel-selector switch for each student position, connecting that position to any one of a number of master channels on which the lessons for that particular day are recorded.

MECHANICAL SPECIFICATIONS

- 1) All mechanical equipment to be remotely controlled, i.e., no motors, reels of tape, levers, push buttons, etc., at the student's position nor, preferably, at the teacher's desk either.
- 2) Operation of all parts should be as nearly noiseless as possible.
- 3) Five or preferably ten years of trouble-free operation should be provided, with only routine maintenance, such as oiling.
- 4) All equipment to be of simple and sturdy design with maximum accessibility for servicing. Servicing must not require a specialist but should be able to be done by student or teacher.
- 5) The system should be capable of practically unlimited expansion to take care of additional positions.
- 6) Re-winding tape should be eliminated, if possible. This would mean a considerable saving in time.
- 7) In some instances it might be desirable to make provision to enable the student to listen over and over again to the last previously recorded 5 or 10 seconds.

ELECTRONIC SPECIFICATIONS

- 1) System frequency response* (i.e., from the mouth of the speaker, through microphone, recording medium, amplifiers, and earphones to ear of listener) to be from 75 to 8000 cycles, plus or minus 3 db. System should be free of audible flutter or wow, not more than .2%.
- 2) At normal operating level with no input signal, noise should be 50-60 db down. No perceptible distortion.
- 3) For maximum flexibility each student position should be provided with access to two channels, to one of which he listens for receiving a recorded sample. On the second the student records his response—imitative or involving any degree of structural modification—to the FL questions posed by the sample. A record—listen switch mentioned above is used in the second channel to change from recording to listening when the student is instructed or desires to start listening to what he has recorded.
- 4) Ideally the student should have only a microphone and earphones at his position. (But it does not seem possible to design a satisfactory system which will dispense with one switch to allow the student to switch from recording to listening. The indications are that a volume control will also have to be provided for each student, because individual needs for signal strength at the earphones differ widely.)
- 5) The teacher should be able to monitor any student's work and should be able also to carry on a two-way conversation with that student without being heard by the other students. The teacher should also be able to talk to all students simultaneously over their earphones, possibly hearing the entire class reply. It is probably undesirable for individual members of the class to be able to initiate conversation with each other. There is probably no need either for the student to signal the teacher electronically; a button would be required at the student position, which would be an additional expense.
- 6) Access to remote-control equipment to

be by means of switching and simplified as far as possible.

- 7) Absolute minimum of maintenance on the premises. (Amateur and even radio repairmen have been unsatisfactory in many places.)

With this system, as with any other language laboratory setup, someone has to make or procure master tapes. Facilities for making masters and for feeding in material on records, short wave, or other tapes will have to be provided.

Several manufacturers have expressed interest in producing equipment meeting the essential specifications at prices below \$1000 per position; two have promised that if a market develops, their prices can be cut below \$500 per position for complete installation, including all equipment, wiring, and booths, but not sound-proofing of the room or putting wires in floors or walls. The problem is to determine what you are giving up when you relax your specifications below the ideal. Only careful tests will show. A program of evaluation and testing of language laboratory equipment would seem to be badly needed by the entire language teaching profession right now. And this needs to be supplemented by helping teachers determine whether equipment supplied by manufacturers actually meets the specifications laid down.

Purdue and M.I.T. hope this year to purchase and install complete laboratories, each with a remote-control system, conforming as far as possible to the above specifications. If financing can be obtained, the equipment will be thoroughly tested in various teaching situations to determine what modifications should be made to arrive at a maximally efficient teaching and learning situation. The author would appreciate comments from the readers.

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* It is not known at present how the high and low frequency response of the equipment affects learning. As part of their plans for installing new laboratories, Purdue and M.I.T. will carry out comparative studies based on varying the response. This is desirable because it costs money to add the lower and higher frequencies. We must have adequate performance, but it is wasteful to specify and pay for high frequency response we do not need.

Flexselsior

THE event on October 4, 1957 resulted in the most direct challenge ever made to American education. The ensuing months have been full of charges, counter-charges, quick remedy suggestions, tranquilizers and tremendous efforts for honest, clear planning. An acute, almost compulsive need to communicate with Russia in new terms has abruptly awakened the whole nation to the fact that we know no Russian—nor any other foreign language for that matter. Every language teacher in America probably has the following figures burned into his mind by now: 56% of the public high schools in America offer no modern foreign language. Of those students privileged to study modern foreign languages in our so-called "polyglot democracy" 7.3% are taking Spanish, 5.6%, French, and .8%, German. Less than 14% of the American high school students are studying any modern foreign language. Still more, the vast majority of this 14% takes just two years of the language! Without doubt, the same language teachers have repeated far beyond automatic overlearning Dr. James B. Conant's arrestingly simple statement that taking two years of a language "is like drilling for oil and stopping just before the oil is reached." In the same statement he also said: "There is little use in studying a foreign language unless something approaching mastery is the result." Within eleven months after sputnik, nevertheless, Congress has passed a bill which will stand as a landmark in American education. Foreign language study and the training of foreign language teachers is therein marked as of vital concern to the welfare of the nation.

Before August 1958, however, there was already a new energy in the foreign language field which had appeared with the atomic age and partook of its characteristics. In 1957 well over 400,000 children in grades one through six studied some foreign language—just slightly under the combined total of those students in high schools and colleges studying modern foreign languages. This largest single group in

the United States studying foreign language has begun at what is generally agreed to be the optimum learning age, with some hope of a long sequence in this study, and very probably in a dynamic program aggressively sponsored by school people and parents working together. Many of these programs now have "alumni" in junior high schools and a few like Los Angeles and Cleveland have begun to train the second generation in the same family. Russia's sputnik *did not produce FLES*, but it can help. *FLES is no longer an experiment*. It is a program of proved merit not only consonant with, but dynamically promoting the best aims of American education.

It is true, and I should be myopic if I failed to see it, that the program, despite its size and health, is still far from universal and is subject to plaguing problems both administrative and most especially personnel. *There simply are not enough trained FLES teachers to meet the demand*. And good will alone will not suffice. Southern Illinois University deserves both credit and gratitude for its early and far-sighted concern for training elementary teachers also certified in foreign language. There is, however, another vital step in the progressive development of the FLES program. It might be termed "consolidation and unification." It is, in fact, a four point program designed to meet some of the acute problems of FLES and at the same time to envisage a logical handling of other problems implicit in the energetic concrete FLES program now in operation. These recommendations are not in any sense "quick cure remedies"; they are, however, an attempt to reach a solution to some of the "growing pains" of FLES.

1. FLES teachers should urge the M.L.A. or the U. S. Office of Education to call a working conference of experienced leaders in FLES representing all the languages taught at the grade school level to create an over-all master plan for the situational type of learning at the children's level. The M.L.A. pioneered so

courageously and brilliantly with its beginners' manuals that it has inspired experimentation and the creation of new materials throughout the country. If some basic agreement could be reached on the structure patterns and vocabulary in each language learned at this level (e.g. 20 situations containing *X* number and types of patterns with *Y* type of minimal vocabulary), then normative tests of language achievement at this level could be worked out and validated on a national basis. Further experimentation in creating materials could avoid fruitless repetition of testing material already validated by widespread acceptance. Vast quantities of extremely interesting data and knowledge gained by trial and error in the last ten years should be put in order for the new groups who are daily joining the program.

2. On the basis of such a generally accepted language achievement level for the elementary schools, there could—and must—be an *organized* development of junior high materials for children coming from these elementary schools. The junior high needs are crucial since language teachers at this level are already facing the problem of articulation with the elementary schools and are trying to plan for articulation with their high schools. There is no disagreement that the junior high school level utilizes the printed page as well as audio-visual material with a text and yet commercial publishers are hesitant, not knowing how widespread a public will be for a specific material. Present work in this field needs to be channeled and consolidated, for time is of the essence.

3. A national FLES Teacher Placement Bureau and FLES section in professional language and professional teacher organizations are of utmost urgency. Local agencies can, to some extent, take care of the demand for FLES teachers, but information about experienced supervisory personnel who can assure the success of a new program is lost in the absence of any national FLES bureau. In like manner, the interests of the FLES teacher are often dispersed in language and professional elementary asso-

ciations. The FLES teachers are more united by level and techniques than divided by the language taught. One of the happy characteristics of youth is, moreover, their flexibility and adaptability. They feel the need to associate with the language teachers at other levels and with teachers of other material at the juvenile level. Nevertheless, they do have areas of interest specific to their particular work.

4. Finally, FLES teachers must exert their growing positive influence to create a powerful movement among language teachers at all levels to create posts of State Supervisor for Foreign Languages. At present only two states, New York and New Mexico, have such supervisors. Foreign Language learning can not, however, continue to exist in isolated compartments in the various administrative levels of education. Capricious and unarticulated changes of aims and techniques create for the student only confusion and inhibitions which successfully negate any mastery of a language. Unified aims and articulated techniques are no more to be confused with dictatorship than democracy is with anarchy. The crucial question at the moment is one of disseminating information to *all* language teachers (including the great number who teach language only as a part-time "schedule filler") and furthering cooperation among Foreign Language teachers at all levels. It is evident too that such a supervisor should be a Foreign Language person with teaching experience at various levels.

And so we come back to the beginning. Sputnik did not inspire nor create FLES, but it has shocked America into a dynamic awareness of the need for Foreign Language study. As Foreign Language teachers, we are grateful to have this enthusiastic public, but *we* must know where we are going and how we intend to get there. FLES is young, healthy and exceedingly strong. Let its "conquistadores" now take their place of responsible leadership which in both the concrete and figurative sense must be "upward and onward."

RUTH MULHAUSER

Western Reserve University

* * *

Vassar College has begun work on a \$675,000 building to house its new foreign language center; it will contain 16 rooms for language practice and classes, 20 faculty offices, and a 24-booth language lab.

Similarities of Gender in Basic Spanish and French Vocabularies

IT HAS been my experience in teaching beginning college foreign language classes that usually three-fourths of the students electing Spanish have studied French from one to three years in high school and vice versa. Also, it is obvious that a thorough knowledge of an adequate vocabulary is an indispensable requirement for understanding and expressing oneself both orally and in writing in a foreign language. It would seem, therefore, that any simple technique for utilizing prior knowledge in learning vocabulary and gender is useful.

For this reason, I have made a comparative study of the nouns common in and to the two languages with a view toward expediting vocabulary learning because of the relationship between French and Spanish. The nouns chosen are those appearing in the first 1500 words in Buchanan, Milton A.: *A Graded Spanish Word Book*, third edition, Toronto, 1932, and in Vander Beke, George E.: *French Word Book*, Macmillan, 1934, since a fair proportion of beginning texts are based on these word lists.

From these 1500 words, 667 nouns appear in the Spanish list and 626 in the French. I have paired these nouns wherever they are easily recognizable as similar and have the same meaning. Included are nouns where a consistent parallel pattern in spelling change is obvious. For example: *oi* and *e* (*droit* and *derecho*, *foi* and *fe*); *ch* and *c* (*champ* and *campo*, *cheval* and *caballo*); *f* and *h* or *ille* and *j* (*fille* and *hija*, *feuille* and *hoja*); *qu* and *cu* (*qualité* and *cualidad*, *quart* and *cuarto*); *-té* and *-dad* (*cité* and *ciudad*, *quantité* and *cantidad*); and a few others. A total of 347 nouns can be paired in this manner.

Of the paired nouns in the two languages, 327 are of the same gender. Of course, if all the nouns in one language list had been paired with similar nouns in the other language appearing later on the list, the correspondence would be comparatively greater as there is considerable discrepancy in the order of appearance of words

in the two lists. For example, *frío* is number 451 on the Spanish list while *froid* is number 1530 on the French list. Only twenty nouns are of differing genders. Three of these—*fin*, *mar* and *orden*—can be either masculine or feminine in Spanish, and one—*gens*—is both genders in French, requiring a feminine adjective preceding it and a masculine one following. Of the remaining sixteen, twelve are feminine in French and masculine in Spanish with only four showing the opposite variation.

In conclusion, it seems that beginning language students having previously studied either French or Spanish respectively can be saved considerable time and energy in learning gender in vocabularies if they are told that, in general, words are of the same gender in both languages if they look alike and have the same meaning. The comparatively few exceptions can then be specifically pointed out to them.

Appended is the list of the paired nouns from the first 1500 words on each word list differing in gender in the two languages.

calme m	calma f
chaleur f	calor m
charge f	cargo m
connaissance f	conocimiento m
couleur f	color m
dent f	diente m
destinée f	destino m
fin f	fin m and f (rare)
front m	frente f
gens m and f plural	gente f
horreur f	horror m
lèvre f	labio m
matin m	mañana f
mer f	mar m and f
minuta f	minuto m
ordre m	orden m and f
origine f	origen m
pensée f	pensamiento m
sang m	sangre f
terreur f	terror m

RUTH JACKSON VOLMAN
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An American Classical Scholar Learns German

IN THE early spring of 1874, a brilliant young American classical scholar was recuperating at Carlsbad after three strenuous semesters of study which had just terminated with the passing of a harrowing oral examination at the University of Leipzig.¹ Noting that the laws of the spa were ludicrous in their English translation, he rewrote them in idiomatic English at the request of the municipal government.² In about twenty months Milton Wylie Humphreys had achieved such fluency in the German language that he could do this with ease. Later President of the American Philological Society at the age of thirty-eight, and professor of classics at four colleges and universities, he became one of the most distinguished linguists of the last quarter of the nineteenth century.³ The methods he pursued in acquiring his remarkable knowledge of German at a time when modern language study in America was still primitive, and his observations on the German language and on second-language learning will thus be both historically and intrinsically illuminating.

While serving as Adjunct Professor of Ancient Languages at Washington College (which became Washington and Lee University in 1871), in Lexington, Virginia, from which he had graduated shortly after the Civil War, Humphreys continued his study of German in anticipation of the work in the classics he was planning to do abroad. En route to Europe in July 1872 on board the North German Lloyd steamer *Ohio*, he became quite a linguistic authority among passengers and officers. Although on this voyage he learned to converse in German with considerable ease, he made the mortifying discovery on reaching Bremen that he was still far from having complete command of the language, his difficulty being not in speaking, but in understanding others. Realizing that he would have to train his ear constantly and persistently in order to understand the lectures that he expected to attend at the University of Berlin in the fall, he now began his systematic study of German, which was to result

in his eventual mastery of the language ("Autobiography," pp. 559, 566).

In Cannstatt near Stuttgart where he spent the latter part of his first summer abroad, the American professor-student hired a kinswoman of the grammarian Professor Otto to read German to him an hour or two every day. Considering it desirable at first to be familiar with the subject matter, he would go through Thucydides and Tacitus in the original and the next day have the lady give the same passages in a free German translation. Before too long he was able to dispense with preparation and take up new material ("Autobiography," p. 566).

Humphreys supplemented this formal training in numerous ways. While at first he had stopped at expensive, first-class hotels he henceforth patronized "the best of the inns for natives," where he "paid less than half, heard nothing but German, and learned something of German life" ("Autobiography," p. 565). He read German books and newspapers, took dinner at a restaurant where only German was heard, shunned the company of people who spoke English, and heard every sermon he could. He attended the summer theater regularly, whose standard diction offered better training than his tutor's South German pronunciation, which he himself acquired and later had great difficulty in losing ("Autobiography," p. 567). He would walk along behind others, listening to them speak German, so as to practice his ear.⁴

¹ See our article, "An American Classical Scholar in Germany, 1874," *AGR*, XXII (August-September 1956), 30-33.

² Unpublished "Autobiography of Milton W. Humphreys" (presented to the University of Virginia by his nephew W. J. Humphreys), pp. 652-653. The "Autobiography" was composed for the information of his children. The section on his German experiences was written in the first decade of the present century.

³ For Humphreys' career, see R. H. Webb in *Dictionary of American Biography*.

⁴ Letters to *Lexington Gazette*, Dec. 20, Oct. 4, 1872; there are 30 of these letters printed between Aug. 23, 1872 and Nov. 21, 1873, and signed "W." or "Wanderer."

After his arrival in Berlin, Humphreys continued his practice of attending the theater, seeing *Lohengrin*, *Wilhelm Tell*, *Die Jungfrau von Orleans*, and many other plays. He never allowed himself to speak English with the two fellow Washington and Lee graduates who were studying in the German capital. In Leipzig, however, where he moved in the spring of 1873 to earn his degree, he considered his proficiency such that he no longer felt the necessity of avoiding his native tongue ("Autobiography," pp. 577, 593, 600).

So deeply was Humphreys Germanized that the slips he made in speaking French during the several weeks spent in Paris in the spring of 1874 on his way home to America were Germanisms rather than Anglicisms. He would say, for instance, "un *anderer* homme," not "un *other* homme." In his opinion this mixing of two foreign languages rather than the mixing of one's own with a foreign language, was quite a common phenomenon ("Autobiography," p. 659).

Milton Wylie Humphreys' on-the-spot views of second-language learning in general and of German in particular are contained chiefly in two letters he wrote to the *Lexington Gazette* from Berlin after he had been in Germany about five months but before he had attained a complete mastery of the language.⁵ His remarks do not constitute a formal essay on language for specialists but rather a record of his own personal "experience in acquiring or attempting to acquire a practical acquaintance with the German language," in the hope that this might "be of service to persons who may in [the] future attempt the same thing." Generalizing, Humphreys pointed out that there were several ways in which a foreign language may be known:

One may be able to read and tolerably well understand a language, and not be able to write it correctly; or one may be able to read and write, but not be able to speak it or understand it spoken; or one may be able to read, write, and speak a little; then next in order comes read, write, speak a little, and understand it spoken; but last of all is to speak correctly and fluently. Language for the eye and the pen is one thing, and language for the ear and tongue another. Of course a person can speak the *mother tongue* without being able either to read or write; and in that case one is scarcely conscious of the separate existence of such a

thing as language; but at present I speak exclusively of acquiring a new language by study and practice . . .

I thought I knew a good deal of German when I left America. I was very certain I could read a book and understand it, and I could generally think of a German word for any idea I proposed to express; and I was in the habit of practising myself by "thinking in German" or rather "thinking *into* German" (for I can't say that I can think in German yet); and if I hit on an idea the word for which I didn't know, I would take the first one I found under the right head in my dictionary. This is the method followed by students of all languages in America. "I found it in Liddell & Scott"⁶ is considered an ample defense against an underscore in a Greek exercise, regardless of the fact that Liddell & Scott . . . has many errors itself, and that what is good in one connection may not be in another. Now, I have found that this will not work in this country. If I ask a conductor "Do we change cars here?" and he doesn't know what I am talking about, it will not mend the matter to say "I found all those words in Adler," or even in "Köhler."

During the early part of his stay in Germany, Humphreys always found it necessary to watch the mouth of the person speaking, a habit that one day led to an embarrassing incident. Taking a seat at a table in a Cologne restaurant where two young Bonn students were sitting, he proceeded to practice his ears and eyes by listening to them talk. Finally one arose and said in "rather indifferent *Latin*" to the other: "Let us go: this fellow sits here and looks a man right in the mouth." From that time Humphreys stopped looking at people in the mouth when they talked.

Being driven from the aid of the eye [Humphreys theorized], I was compelled to help my ear by keeping before my mind's eye a picture of the things spoken of or related in what I was listening to; and this is by far the more successful way of learning to understand the spoken language. . . . Otherwise you will never learn anything from what you hear, although you may seem to understand it; just as a person must become unconscious of the printed page before him before he can get the full meaning of what he is reading.

If Humphreys took part in a conversation, or listened to a long connected discourse, such as a sermon, however, he could always at least get the substance of what was said, because in conversation he knew what the subject was, and what was said to him was always somewhat

⁵ Published Dec. 20, 1872 and Jan. 17, 1873.

⁶ Liddell and Scott was a standard Greek lexicon of the period. The perfectionist classical scholar is visible in this comment.

controlled by what *he* said. In the case of sermons he knew the subject and had become acquainted with pulpit-phraseology by reading the German Testament, the only one he had used for a long time. Humphreys concluded that to acquire even this familiarity with the language had required many times the labor included in an ordinary German course.

Since his purpose in coming to Germany made it necessary that he should learn at once to understand the spoken language, he directed all his efforts to this end and let the speaking take care of itself.

As to speaking German [Humphreys continued], it is rather mechanical with me. Some people hold that no one can think without thinking words. These, of course, will not believe me when I say I think without words and then translate, so to speak, my thoughts into German; that is, express them after they are shaped; but this I have learned to do with a facility which makes others believe I am really speaking German. But I don't feel that I am saying anything or that I am responsible for any assertions I make in German. I think it will give the best idea of what I mean when I say that, in case of vexation I don't feel that it would do me a bit of good to swear in German.

It is in a way reassuring to the modern student of German that even a scholar as brilliant, systematic, and self-assured as Humphreys had moments of discouragement in which he felt that he was not making the hoped-for progress in the language. In the earlier of his two letters he came to the conclusion that the German language was one of unusual difficulty to acquire thoroughly, a view he found confirmed by the experience of others who had learned several modern languages. It was even more difficult, he thought, than English, or else the German people had a greater facility for learning a language than Americans had, which he could not believe.⁷

In his second letter to the *Lexington Gazette*, written several weeks later, Humphreys returned to "the great difficulty of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the German language." He also apologized that his linguistic mistakes were not of a funny nature. His German had only once been taken for English. Calling for a "Propertius"⁸ in a bookstore, he was requested by the clerk to be so kind as to "schpeak" English a little more slowly. Humphreys complied with this plea, but was still not under-

stood. It turned out that the clerk had never heard of Propertius, and that was the difficulty. Elsewhere Humphreys reported how in a clothing store in Göttingen he had attempted to mention "unmentionables," but carelessly called them slippers, with the result that he was recognized as a foreigner and considered fair game to be cheated.⁹

As a philologist Humphreys expressed great interest in the pronunciation of various German dialects and their relationship to the standard language. He was no admirer of the Swabian dialect, which he found hard to understand. It seemed to him the Swabians sang when they talked. He alluded to Schiller's "intolerable Swabian" accent which in his early poems disqualified him in Humphreys' view as an authority for German pronunciation. The "rather Saxonish German," that Professor Haupt in Berlin broke off into when he wanted to tell a joke and which he spoke much faster than the Latin of his lectures, reminded Humphreys of "travelling in a stage-coach in Rockbridge [County, surrounding Lexington]. You go at a snail's pace up a steep hillside and can hardly feel that you are moving. Presently you dash off and go rolling, pitching, and tumbling down the other side."¹⁰

Humphreys was outraged by the abominable German spoken at Innsbruck in the Tirol. He remarked on the omission of vowels in proper names—*Plch* was very common without any vowel, and *Schweiggl* was considered a monosyllable. His own name that had always seemed to him to be composed of two very reasonable syllables was utterly unpronounceable for the Tiroleans.

One day [wrote Humphreys] I had some dealings with a man which made it necessary for him to take my name. He didn't know how to commence spelling it; so I spelled out the first syllable, and he wrote it down with a smile; but when I had half spelled the second, he couldn't stand it any longer, but dropt his pen and leaned back and laughed

⁷ The above comments are contained in the letter of Dec. 20, 1872.

⁸ The Roman elegiac poet (50?-15 B.C.).

⁹ Letter of Nov. 15, 1872.

¹⁰ Letters of Oct. 11; Oct. 18; Nov. 29; Nov. 8, 1872; Feb. 14, 1873.

aloud. His name was *Tschurtschenthaler* . . . ¹¹

In a more serious vein Humphreys told the readers of the *Lexington Gazette*:

[I] assure you that there is no such thing [as the German language] in existence! I mean the spoken language. It is a mere abstraction. On the Rhine they speak Rhinish. In Saxony they speak Saxon, in Berlin they speak Berlinish, in Wurtemberg they speak Wurtembergish, etc., etc. [The difference in them] is much greater than we . . . suppose, one dialect being almost or quite unintelligible to the speakers of the other. But the educated people approximate two standards, the North-German and the South-German . . . Now these standards of which "North-German" is acknowledged to be the better, are by no means fixed. Grammars differ. That of Whitney in the U.S. agrees with what the greatest scholars in Berlin teach. In fact they refer to that work as being a model of perfection. But their *practice* in pronunciation differ[s] confessedly, from what they teach, because they allow their pronunciation to be influenced by that of the people with whom they are compelled to have linguistic intercourse. I have called the attention of some to this; and they have admitted it; but told me at the same time that a foreigner must follow the rules and not imitate what he hears.¹²

Maintaining that the pronunciation taught at Washington and Lee University was the best model for students, Humphreys warned against accepting the pronunciation of individual Germans in America, since each was likely to think his dialect was the standard language. He had asked a German once in Lexington to pronounce *genießen*, and he said *yenießen*; another corrected him and said *shenießen*; while still another laughed at them and said it was *zhenießen*; and they were all wrong. Humphreys came to the conclusion that a man who had learned German from books, if he had done it thoroughly, and then visited Germany was a much better authority than a native who had "only learned the language practically." He did admit, however, that the German might be better able to produce a sound when he knew what it was, "because his organs have been exercised in similar sounds." Recognizing the

distinction between common usage and the correct standard, Humphreys claimed that although a German might be "wrong" in relation to the standard, he was actually right in speaking his own dialect as long as the present unstandardized condition of the language continued.¹³

One of an increasing number of Americans studying in Germany in the 1870's,¹⁴ Milton Wylie Humphreys has left a vivid and thought-provoking record of the practical problems confronting even a brilliant and strongly motivated native American of the period in obtaining a thorough mastery of German. Startled at the magnitude of this task, he set himself resolutely and intelligently to its accomplishment. Lacking the training aids devised in subsequent decades of systematic language research, he was forced to improvise methods that not only brought him success but also can in good measure be recommended today. He was a keen observer of linguistic and social phenomena. His insights into the peculiarities of the German language and into second-language learning can be read with interest and profit by the modern student who wishes to achieve greater oral fluency in German or another foreign tongue.

OLLINGER CRENSHAW

WILLIAM W. PUSEY, III

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¹¹ Letter of Nov. 7, 1873. Humphreys spent much of his summer vacation of 1873 in the Tirol. Even the eminent Professor Friedrich Ritschl of the University of Leipzig had trouble with Humphreys' name; see our article, p. 31.

¹² Letter of Jan. 17, 1873; the reference to Whitney is to William D. Whitney, *A Compendious German Grammar* (1869; and numerous later editions).

¹³ Letter of Jan. 17, 1873.

¹⁴ Cf. Charles Franklin Thwing, *The American and the German University* (New York, 1928), p. 42.

* * *

I hope that all will achieve a genuine proficiency in a foreign language. We are, indeed, poor linguists. We are too much handicapped because so many of our people have failed to become knowledgeable in a language other than ours. Success in this will do much to improve human understanding in a world of great cultural diversity, and thus to strengthen our relationships with other people. This is one indispensable step towards a peaceful world!

DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

The Verb and the Beginning Student of Spanish

THE average student approaches a foreign language with justifiable misgivings. He suspects, or notes with chagrin, that the logic to which he has become accustomed in his native language is lacking in the foreign language. The verb forms, in particular, reduced in English to a conveniently small number, present a formidable obstacle in Spanish. In the present tense every type of subject demands a different construction. The other tenses will impose additional burdens of the same type.¹ The student can look forward, therefore, to an inordinate amount of memorization from the verbs alone.

As if to allay these fears, the conventional method of presentation is designed to convince the student that Spanish has an easily acquired logic. The infinitive is the channel through which all verb constructions will be reached. The six inflections of the present tense are given as derivatives of the infinitive and are conveniently constructed by excising the two final letters of the infinitive and replacing them with standard endings. Furthermore, the assumption is made, to judge by common procedure, that a translation of the verb constructions or of the infinitive is *ipso facto* an explanation of their meaning.

Anticipating those constructions which do not follow this neat scheme, it becomes necessary to bring the student's attention to "exceptions" or "irregular constructions." Unfortunately, the "exceptions" have a habit of assuming gigantic proportions. The end result is a standard of doubtful reliability. As he suspected all along, the student is committed, in an early stage of the course to make a decision: either to buckle down to a mechanical absorption of a designated quota of material, as he has already had to do in other courses, or to plod along as best he can, somehow picking up enough to pass the course.

If the study of language is to achieve independence of the textbooks and if the student is to be made to realize that what he is expected

to learn is the daily equipment of millions of people, the situation must be met in the most obvious way. If, for example, a student is asked, *¿Habla usted inglés en casa?*, that is, with the knowledge that he already understands that *usted* is himself, a basis is created for relating verb form and subject. The student, who is now involved in a real situation, knows what he wants to say and needs only to be shown that in Spanish the verb construction varies with the type of subject. *Hablo* can be arrived at with confidence only if the speaker first has *yo* in mind. The subject pronouns are useful not only as a guide to the correct verb forms, but also as an effective means of expressing emphasis or forceful identification:—*¿Quién habla griego?—Yo hablo griego.*

At this point the student can be directed to a very essential phase of the learning process; namely, the ability to anticipate the *need* for a new construction before actually learning what it is. If *hablo* satisfies one need, the inclusion of other persons along with the speaker will demand another construction, that is, *hablamos*. The relationship between *habla* and *hablan* presents no special problem.

The fact that *usted*, which is used in the direct form of address, should require a verb construction which is apparently reserved for the third person singular, is not a difficult adjustment for English-speaking students to make. In English, five of the six inflections of the present indicative are identical in form and distinguished only by differences in subject.

Tú and *usted* as different forms of address merit a thorough discussion in the classroom where the impression is usually fostered that *usted* is the more normal mode of address. To cope with this, it would not be amiss for the instructor to take his students into his confidence and admit that the language is being learned under artificial conditions. *Tú* can not actually

¹ Only the present tense and the infinitive are being considered in this article. The paradigms of the other tenses are governed by the same influences as the present.

be illustrated in the class-room. However, it can be satisfactorily explained. It can be introduced in a variety of ways, depending upon the ingenuity and imagination of the instructor. Situations can be invented to indicate that there is a wide gulf between *tú* and *usted*. I am, for example, in a Mexican village. A child stands fifty feet away, that is, too far to note my facial expressions, but near enough to make out the words I speak. *¿Hablas inglés?*, I ask him. Does he not realize that I am addressing him? What would the same child do if I were to look in his general direction and ask, *¿Habla usted inglés??* He would probably look around to see whom I was addressing. If, on the other hand, I were facing a child and an adult, is there any doubt as to who would respond to the question, *¿Habla usted inglés??* Furthermore, if I happened to overhear one adult greet another with *¿Cómo está usted?*, would that not be a clue to their relationship?

In the Mexican film, *Flor silvestre* (released in 1946), one particular sequence is effective in explaining the difference between *tú* and *usted*. A peasant girl marries a man of wealth and incurs the immediate displeasure of her mother-in-law. When the girl falls seriously ill, the older woman condescends to visit her. The initial part of the conversation is naturally stiff and formal, demanding the use of *usted* on the part of both women. However, during the course of the conversation, the mother-in-law's prejudice yields to a feeling of affection. When does the audience first notice the change in attitude? Students are quick to see what a change in verb construction will do. In an English-language film, dealing with the same circumstances, or in the same film with English dubbed in, the subtlety of the Spanish language would not be available. Some clear declaration would have to be made by the mother-in-law to convey her change of feeling.

The command form with *usted* is usually taught long before the familiar imperative. Because the latter is often delayed until the second semester, the students assume, as a rule, that the construction they have learned will take care of all cases. This is, of course, not true. Yet, unless the students are constantly reminded of the restricted use of *usted*, they will tend to draw erroneous conclusions. Since

they are already familiar with the use of *tú* in the indicative, they can be encouraged to anticipate a construction for the familiar imperative which is different from that used with *usted*. The actual presentation of the construction rests with the discretion of the instructor.

Finally, it would be naïve to assume that an unfamiliar concept can be disposed of in one or two sessions. The difference between *tú* and *usted* and the advantage of having two forms of address must be raised frequently within the context of stories read in class and of spontaneous situations arising out of the lessons. Similarly, the unique character of the paradigm in Spanish can be presented, not as a burden consisting of six different inflections, but as a set of constructions which suggest different types of subjects in an unmistakable way.

The infinitive is ordinarily presented as the source of all verb forms, but is, of course, nothing of the kind. If the finite forms are functions of particular situations, each reflecting a performer, a doer, or subject, the infinitive must be recognized as a vague, abstract, almost meaningless construction, suggesting, as the name implies, an infinite number of possibilities, but not expressing any. It is not, therefore, the progenitor of the other forms, but is dependent on them. Release from its nebulous state can be effected only through association with another verb, which, in its turn, must be clear in its function. Thus, in the sentence, *Los estudiantes quieren hablar bien el español*, the "students" are involved in both actions. For all practical purposes *hablar* would be meaningless without the finite verb form *quieren*. If one infinitive follows another, neither conveys a satisfactory idea, unless a finite verb is present: *Mis padres quieren aprender a hablar bien el inglés*. If the first expressed verb construction in a sentence is an infinitive, the listener or reader expects a finite verb as a matter of course: *al volver a casa después de las doce, mi hermano siempre se acuesta en seguida*.

The fact that the infinitive is the verb construction given in the dictionary is confirmation, to some people, of its leading role. The student, however, is never at a loss to understand that the dictionary, having no specific situations to represent, can make only a vague reference to a certain type of action or being.

If, on the other hand, the editor of the dictionary wishes to clarify the meaning of a verb, he invents a situation and must, of course, use the verb in the finite form.

The infinitive can be put to use in the sense that it can suggest that verbs having the same end sound have much in common. Thus, it can be suggested that *cantar* be handled exactly as *hablar*. To make sure that the suggestion is profitably taken, the following type of exchange can be instituted:

- ¿Señor Taylor, canta usted bien?
 ——No, señor, yo no canto bien.
 ——¿Señorita Schmidt, cantan ustedes en la clase de español?
 ——No, señor, no cantamos en la clase de español.

Saber can be presented as a verb which behaves like *comer* except for the sequence *yo sé*. Forms like *sé, voy, estoy, doy*, etc. are no more irregular or arbitrary than *hablo*. The fact that students can use them as soon as they are presented contributes to the belief that they are normal in the language.² On the other hand, treated as irregular constructions, they represent a block to most students.

To the average student, the so-called radical changing verbs represent an appreciable amount of additional material to be learned. Yet, this phenomenon is so common in the Spanish language, it is almost axiomatic to say that whenever "e" or "o" come under stress, they tend to take on another form. This is confirmed by the fact that the tendency is not restricted to verbs. The Latin *terra* is rendered *tierra* in Spanish. *Porta* and *novem* are *puerta* and *nueve*, respectively. Significantly, *novcientos* indicates a change only where the vowel is stressed. Recognizing the possibility of change under stress, students can be made conscious enough to anticipate it. Here, as in other places, we are dealing with an observable pattern and not a formula. *Aprendo* and *como* are proof that the procedure is not automatic.

Even here, it can be shown that the tendency for "e" and "o" to diphthongize when under stress allows for very few exceptions. *Aprendo* and *como*, coming from *apprehendo* and *comedo*, reflect an "e" and "o" which were not under stress in the Latin prototypes.

There is no doubt, however, that the tendency was always prominent in the Spanish language. In the *Cid* there may be found not only the changes to be noted in modern Spanish, but many other instances of the same type in words that have since been modified. To quote a few: *¿non te viene en "miente" en Valencia lo del león?* (3330); *a los días del "siglo" non le llorassen cristianos* (1295); *Oidme, las escuelas, "cuemdes" e ifañones!* (2072); *Mas, sabed, de "cuer" les pesa a ifantes de Carrión* (2317).

Having established the validity of the tendency, the student can be guided to a verb like *pensar* with the suggestion that it be manipulated like *hablar* with the additional information that the "e" under stress will follow the tendency. *Poder* can be related to *comer* in the same way. *Decir, pedir, servir*, etc. can be presented as a minority pattern which is restricted to the third conjugation.³

Conventionally, drill and homework are the means by which knowledge is carried over from session to session. The quantitative aspect of this approach to the language makes it imperative that appreciable portions of the textbook be regularly assigned. It has already been shown that verb constructions can be learned without resorting to patterns based upon repetition. Notes can be taken in Spanish I as profitably as in a chemistry lecture. A note on *madrugar*, for example, to the effect that it can be approached as *hablar* relieves the student of a time-consuming deduction on his own. The teacher thus becomes a guide to the language and not a mechanical reflector of the textbook. He represents assurance to the student that there is a workable approach to all the complexities of the language.

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² *Doy, soy, voy, etc.* were not always in the Spanish language. In the *Cid* these constructions are closer to Latin, appearing as *do, so, vo, etc.*

Trezientos marcos . . . les *do* yo. (*Poema de Mio Cid*, ed. Ramón Menéndez Pedal, Madrid, 1946, v, 2103)

Yo desto *so* pagado; (v. 2466)

Vo meter la vuestra *seña* (v. 707)

³ At the discretion of the instructor, the students can be shown that when Spanish says *digo, dices, dice*, it is perpetuating the Latin *di* sequence—*dico, dicis, dicit*. However, with *nosotros* and *vosotros*, that is, when the "e" is not under stress, it stands firm—*decimos, decís*.

Teaching Foreign Language to Children: Observations and Suggestions

AFTER a cumulative total of nine months of teaching French to children in the public schools of Muncie, Indiana, and of supervising the work of seven teaching students, the writer offers the following comments regarding classroom teaching. Nine months of intensive study and teaching represent only a beginning in this field; and the following observations will, of course, not be accepted as conclusive. Rather, they represent examples of problems frequently faced or advice which the writer would have welcomed before starting the program.

1. In the aural-oral situation, repetition is obviously the basic teaching device. In introducing subject matter, the Muncie children in the eight FLES classes in French responded best to choral repetition, followed by individual repetition. At first the teaching staff was naive about the amount of repetition necessary to assure retention of sounds and words; we had assumed that the children would learn a word almost instantly. No such miracle occurred. The beginning foreign language teacher will do well to remember that he will have to use about three times as much repetition as he anticipates.

Faced with this fact, he will consider more intensively various ways to review the same material. Use of the same pictures of a house, for instance, accompanied by the same questions, soon produces a hypnotic situation in which the best students answer and the rest intone. On the other hand, children will retain interest in the vocabulary and sentence patterns if the teacher uses the simple device of supplying a different set of pictures, varying the order of the questions, and injecting a few additional comments or questions into the review.

2. Imitation and reproduction of French sounds is, in general, excellent, provided the child hears the sound correctly. In classes of thirty or more, making certain that each child

hears and pronounces correctly is of utmost importance. Checking each child is a time-consuming process during which the other children become restless. One can use tape recordings (also time-consuming) to verify accuracy of pronunciation. It is better, however, if the beginning teacher can have a choice, to keep the class small.

3. As the children become adapted to the process of repeating what the teacher says, he is soon confronted with the situation in which the child repeats his question instead of answering it. (To "Comment allez-vous?" the child answers "Comment allez-vous?") The best means that we have found to avoid this situation is to utilize a third person who answers the question before it is directed to the student. During the first year, the language teacher can often enlist the aid of the interested classroom teacher to whom he can teach either the simple question or the simple response. As the children watch the interchange between two other individuals, they understand the situation immediately. Lacking a third person, the language teacher can continue to repeat the question until some student gives the response. We have found that in the latter situation, the best technique is for the teacher to answer the question himself and then repeat it to the student. Thus the dialogue often goes:

Teacher: Quel âge avez-vous?

Student: Quel âge avez-vous?

Teacher: Non. Moi, j'ai vingt ans; Annette a dix ans; quel âge avez-vous?

Eventually some child understands, and the entire class learns through the teacher's intonation that a question involves a response.

4. Pupil progress is also influenced greatly by the teacher's sense of pace. From observing the Cleveland teachers, the Ball State FLES staff early became aware of the necessity for a fast pace in the classroom. Interest is more often killed by the teacher's waiting for a response

than by his passing over the student who does not answer immediately. Provided that the teacher returns to recheck students who were unresponsive on the first try, the slower children will learn from listening to the faster ones, and when called upon again, will have a sense of achievement.

5. Not only must the class pace be brisk; the teacher must also provide for variety in activity. The beginning teacher should plan three activities for a thirty-minute period. Sometimes he will spend the whole period on one or two; but at first he should always have an extra activity in mind. It is difficult for a beginning teacher to judge how much time to spend on one subject. Only experience can give him the balance between too much concentration and too little. He has to learn when to leave a subject, when it is necessary to return to it, and when the students know it so thoroughly that continued intensive review is boring.

6. Songs, games, and activities that in general involve moving about contribute to learning. They must be kept under control; but, wisely used, they help to make the French class an experience to which the children look forward. When one game is discontinued because it no longer serves the purpose of learning, the teacher should have another ready. For instance, when we discontinued the game of "Buzz" for checking number learning, we introduced the game of "*Je pense à quelqu'un qui porte—*." The children gave up "Buzz" without a complaint.

7. Through experience and evaluation the Ball State FLES staff learned a fact that should have been obvious at the start: that the primary consideration in planning subject matter must be the child's world. The children enjoyed most those subjects closely associated with themselves or those they were currently learning in their own language. Numbers fascinated them most of all. Animals, colors, parts of the body, and clothing were of continual interest, though each offers limited possibilities of exploitation. Vocabulary review that involved moving about or contained elements of surprise or guessing always met with success. Short dramatizations were well-received, although the teacher can be too ambitious in planning them for the beginning class.

What the children enjoyed least also bore out the fact that we had to consider their world. In several of the classes there was very little genuine interest in the calendar, dates, and telling time. The house and the members of the family are also taken for granted by children more than a beginning teacher may realize. Much effort and ingenuity are necessary in teaching this subject matter. On the other hand, if an activity such as a birthday can be associated with a member of the family, the children respond well. (I recall this incident in one second-year class. The teacher asked a fourth grader: "*Combien d'enfants y a-t-il dans votre famille?*" "*Trois,*" replied the little boy. "*No!*" exclaimed his friend [yes, in English]. "*There are only two.*" "*My mother just had a baby girl,*" the first child responded scornfully. "*Didn't you know?*")

Records of French songs have limited value for the children. They much prefer a "live" presentation of a song, a sad fact for those of us with poor voices. Learning a song requires much time and energy; but once it is learned, the children enjoy it and request it repeatedly. Finally, the weather and the seasons have little appeal and must be taught incidentally.

8. Another factor which surprised us in the classroom situation was the tendency of the students to respond in monosyllables. The children comprehend complete sentences easily; but during the first six months of instruction, every teacher had to insist on answers in sentences. It should be added, however, that during this second year, responses in sentences are being made with less prodding.

9. A most pleasant surprise was the gradual relaxation of tension as the classes progressed. Although there were very few examples of children struggling to reproduce sounds, there was at the beginning of instruction the tension that one finds when any individual is subjected to a completely new situation, such as is represented by a visiting teacher speaking a different tongue. Gradually, the children relaxed; at the end of five weeks there was an ease in reception and comprehension of new material that was gratifying. This ease of the children in working in a different language impresses outsiders, as well as those of us who learned foreign language in high school or college.

10. Picking the time of day for the French class is more important than the beginning FLES teacher may realize. If there is any choice the morning may be preferable. The last hour of the day is the most difficult in a large class. If the language teacher can do some scouting, it is well to make sure that the class does not conflict with other enjoyable activities, such as scheduled movies, art, and music classes. The first hour or last hour in the morning is preferable in some cases to the first hour in the afternoon, which is more likely to be marked by pupil tardiness or interruptions associated with other classroom activities.

11. Finally, and most important of all, the

prospective FLES teacher should not begin a class before he is (1) fluent in the language to be used or (2) confident that, with the degree of fluency that he has, he may rely on a resource person to improve his capacity to express himself in the language. This fluency factor cannot be overemphasized. In observing the Muncie teaching students, the writer noticed time and again that the best classes are those conducted in the language, that learning the language is the only means of holding the student's attention over a long period of time.

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* * *

Twenty-five travel grants are allocated annually for American teachers of FRENCH to participate in a special seminar in French language, literature, and civilization. In general, the seminar is intended for secondary school teachers, but young college teachers, ordinarily at the M.A. level and not above the rank of assistant professor, who have not had an opportunity to study in France, are also eligible to apply. The summer course is composed of two main parts: (a) a stay in Paris of about three weeks during which the grantees take courses at the Ecole Supérieure de Préparation et de Perfectionnement des Professeurs de Français à l'Etranger of the Sorbonne, where special attention is given to phonetics, grammar, conversation, and the teaching of French, as well as contemporary French problems (economics, politics, art, etc.); and (b) a period of study in a provincial university where the teachers take courses in French literature and civilization and are given the opportunity to observe at firsthand various aspects of French provincial life, then the teachers return to Paris for a final examination. A very good knowledge of French—reading, writing, speaking and understanding—is required. Inquiries concerning these awards should be directed to the U. S. Office of Education, Division of International Education, DHEW, Washington 25, D. C. Word of these annual opportunities should be passed on to high school teachers of French.

* * *

Age and Foreign Language Training

THE United States of America is "linguistically the most backward major nation in the world" (1), so have administration officials told congressional committees when testifying for the need of more and better language teaching. The office of Education now proposes that every child study one foreign language from the third through the sixth grades and possibly through high school. From the seventh grade on, capable students are to be permitted to take a second foreign language.

Not all educators will probably agree that foreign language training should become a part of every child's curriculum. If, however, it is to become obligatory, research seems to give evidence that foreign languages ought to be started upon the child's school entry, whereas some other subjects now in the curriculum of the first three grades might be postponed more profitably. In early childhood, languages are assimilated with much greater facility than later on. On the other hand, some of the materials we are now teaching in these school years require a type of reasoning of which the child is not yet capable.

During the last few months thought has been given to a supposed need to tighten up the curriculum in mathematics and physical sciences. This trend does not seem to consider psychological findings with regard to the development of reasoning. From Piaget's vast studies in this respect, we have learned how slowly abstract thinking develops and that it is at the age of twelve only that his reasoning becomes logical in abstract conceptual matters. To reach this level, not only experience but also maturation of the brain seems necessary. According to Piaget's findings some of the subjects now taught in the first three grades, particularly in the fields of mathematics and physical sciences, are too advanced to be fully understood by the young child. It is quite true, children do learn these subjects, at least a number of them do, but only in a mechanical way.

Piaget states that until the child is about

eight years old his understanding of the world is still somewhat "egocentric"; that is, he believes that the world is what it appears to be to his limited perceptions, subjective as they are. Lacking objectivity, and thinking in absolutes, he does not recognize relationships, be they causal, temporal, or spatial. The young child understands cause and effect relationships only as regards simple life experiences. Because he often thinks in absolutes, he considers one factor at a time, and overlooks others, thus drawing wrong conclusions and generalizations. By necessity then, his inductive and deductive reasoning are often faulty. He believes that his fragmentary and illusionary conceptions of time and space are reality, and this frequently causes defective thinking.

At about the age of eight, much of his egocentric thought has disappeared, first at the "action level," that is, concerning concrete materials that he can manipulate, then on a "verbal level," which means that conceptualization with reference to concrete matters becomes more and more logical. True abstract reasoning develops later. His first generalizations and principles are formed in regard to concrete matters and at about the age of twelve he begins to conceptualize at the abstract level (2).

It is not within the scope of this paper to mention particular aspects of our teaching in the primary grades which ought to be postponed. Anybody reading Piaget's research (described by the author in another article with some application to our curriculum (2)) who knows in detail the subject matter taught in the first three grades will find a multitude of examples of subjects which ought to be taught to the older child. The time thus gained could be used for the learning of languages.

Research by an eminent neurosurgeon from Canada, Dr. Wilder Penfield, gives evidence that languages can be learned best by the young child. Dr. Penfield has been studying brain-injured people in regard to language and the areas of the cortex responsible for the formula-

tion and understanding of speech. In contrast to animals, human language is not "inborn." Whereas motor mechanisms for speech are "inherited," ideational mechanisms of language are "acquired." Spoken language, then, must be learned. At birth the speech areas of the brain are a *tabula rasa*, ready to be written upon. Our ability to learn to speak depends upon the postnatal organization of speech mechanism within our brain (3, p. 201). When the infant starts speaking, the ideational mechanism appears. The functional specialization develops in the dominant cerebral hemisphere. On the other hemisphere the same areas remain blank. Should great injury occur to the already developing speech areas, the talking toddler, silenced possibly for a whole year, will learn to speak again, utilizing now the speech areas on the other hemisphere of his brain. In the older child and adult, such early plasticity of these specialized areas no longer exists. The adult cannot make the transfer completely, not even with the help of a speech therapist. "Once functional localization of acquired skills has been established, the early plasticity tends to disappear" (Ibid. 206).

In his "practical" research with children, Wilder found his assumption proven, that the younger the speaking child is, the more easily does he absorb languages. But up to ten or fourteen years of age, a youngster can learn to speak one or even two foreign languages as well as he speaks his own. This holds particularly true if he talks with a person from the other country for at least part of the day and uses

the new language for work as well as for play. He will then speak without accent and will be capable of thinking in either language without resulting confusion. At this age the best learning occurs through listening and speaking, and not through grammar, as one has learned one's mother tongue.

Penfield proposes to have foreign teachers throughout the early school years who would use their mother tongue only. He even suggests letting these teachers teach other subjects in their language in the lower grades, in order that the child absorb the language completely. He agrees that it is important for the best command of the English language to have American teachers teach all subjects except foreign languages in the higher elementary grades.

In summary, this paper proposes to apply recent psychological research findings to our primary curriculum and to replace some of our subject matter which is not now fully geared toward the stages of mental development during early childhood with the study of foreign languages best learned at the young age.

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3. Penfield, W., *A Consideration of the neurological mechanisms of speech and some educational consequences*. Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Boston, Vol. 82; April 5, 1953. (Pp. 199-214)

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We never seem to hear much about improving the teaching of foreign languages and enlarging the number of people who really possess foreign languages. . . . It should become a glamorous thing for a young man or a young woman to speak a foreign language and speak it well. It should carry as much prestige as excelling in physics or as being a member of the basketball team. . . . It is through speaking the languages of other people that you show your respect for them, and thereby improve your chances of gaining their friendship and cooperation. It is not going to do much good to have it recorded in the history books that Americans wanted to see freedom victorious over communism, if in that cause we cannot even be bothered to learn the language of another people.

—HENRY CABOT LODGE

* * *

Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology for 1957

Compiled by EVELYN VAN EENENAAM, Redford High School, Detroit, Michigan

I should like to emphasize that in the profession of modern foreign language teaching there exists a very real potential for bringing about needed changes. At various places in the country, eager and capable language teachers in colleges, high schools, and elementary schools know what is needed and stand ready to pool their abilities and energies to bring language instruction in line with the urgent demands of the national interest.

"But if this potential is to be employed to maximum effectiveness and in the quickest manner, it must have the benefit of (1) *direct* financial assistance and (2) *centralized* national direction which will wisely marshal and coordinate it, and will disperse funds directly to the individuals or the institutions immediately suited to responsibility for developmental activities.

"It must be apparent by now that I am recommending that the Congress establish a central agency for the specific purpose of sponsoring and administering a national program of research and development in modern foreign language education in order to meet the urgent present and future needs of the nation. This agency should be authorized to initiate or support at least the following activities: 1. summer and year-long institutes for improving the competency of language teachers; 2. development of longer language-learning sequences in our schools, beginning in the elementary school where possible, and continuing through high school; 3. increased teaching of the so-called unusual languages in colleges and universities, and in the schools where feasible; 4. research, development, and demonstration, especially for the purpose of improving methods and materials in language classes; 5. opportunities for language teachers to travel and study abroad in the countries which speak the languages they teach."

From a statement to Congressional education committees by KENNETH W. MILDENBERGER, Director of the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association

I wish to express my appreciation to Professor C. P. Merlino, my chief, for his ready cooperation and confidence in the value of our work; to Professor J. del Toro who was always willing to assist me in my work; to my brother Bill for generously assuming the responsibility of the typing. Thanks are also due to the libraries of the University of Detroit, of the University of Michigan, Wayne State University, and the Detroit Public Library.

In a bibliography of this type, it is inevitable that an article here and there may have escaped my attention. I apologize for any omitted author.

Occasionally I have included journals which had some pertinent articles that were hard to classify. I linked them with the problems of the teaching profession. I naturally

included other bibliographies because of my faith in their usefulness as working tools for teachers.

Magazines as *Américas*, *American Oriental Society Journal*, *General Linguistics* (University of Kentucky), *Hi-Fi Tape Recording Magazine*, *Hispanic American Studies*, *Journal of the Canadian Linguistic Association*, *International Journal of American Linguistics*, *Institute of International Education News Bulletin*, *Language and Word*, *Word*, the many *Bulletins* prepared by Dr. K. Mildemberger, and the section *For Members Only* prepared by Editor G. W. Stone, Jr., for PMLA, contain cultural, bibliographical, and informative material that will enrich any course.

AACB: Association of American Colleges Bulletin (1)
AERTJ: Association for Education by Radio-Television Journal (1) (Later changed to National Association of Educational Broadcasters' Journal)
AGR: American German Review (13)
ASBJ: American School Board Journal (2)
ASEER: American Slavic and East European Review (2)
CE: College English (1)
CH: Clearing House (1)
CJEE: California Journal of Elementary Education (2)
CJSE: California Journal of Secondary Education (3)
CMLR: Canadian Modern Language Review (5)
CTAJ: California Teachers' Association Journal (2)
CU: College and University (2)
E: Education (1)
EF: Educational Forum (2)
EO: Educational Outlook (3)
ESJ: Elementary School Journal (4)
FR: French Review (15)
GQ: German Quarterly (11)
GR: Germanic Review (15)
H: Hispania (18)
HE: Higher Education (5)
HP: High Points (9)
HR: Hispanic Review (3)
I: Italica (5)
JCJ: Junior College Journal (2)
JE: Jewish Education (3)
JEL: Journal of Education (London) (2)
JGE: Journal of General Education (1)
JHE: Journal of Higher Education (1)
KFLQ: Kentucky Foreign Language Quarterly (3)
LL: Language Learning (7)
LN: Lingua (Netherlands) (1)
MDU: Monatshefte für Deutschen Unterricht (2)
MLF: Modern Language Forum (6)
MLJ: Modern Language Journal (61)
MLL: Modern Languages (London) (10)
MLN: Modern Language Notes (2)
MLR: Modern Language Review (1)
NEAJ: National Education Association Journal (6)
NPT: National Parent Teacher (2)
NS: Nation's Schools (7)
PDK: Phi Delta Kappan (3)
PJE: Peabody Journal of Education (2)
PMLA: Publications of the Modern Language Association of America (13)
PS: Pittsburgh Schools (2)
PSJ: Pennsylvania School Journal (4)
S: Symposium (1)

SE: Social Education (2)
 SEEJ: Slavic and East European Journal (4)
 SL: Student Life (3)
 SLOE: School Life (Office of Education) (7)
 SS: School and Society (7)

TCJ: Teachers' College Journal (1)
 TCR: Teachers' College Record (1)
 TO: Texas Outlook (5)
 VJE: Virginia Journal of Education (1)
 WJE: Wisconsin Journal of Education (3)

I. AIMS, OBJECTIVES (6). See also: 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 164-220.

1. Editorial: "Teaching Foreign Languages," ASBJ, 134 (Apr. '57), 78. The writer praises the new teaching of modern languages. "It is to be hoped that the new teaching of modern languages will continue to seek objectives that emphasize the everyday and continued life skills in speaking and ordinary writing."
2. Kaulfers, W. V.: "For a Unifying Objective," FR, XXX (May '57), 466-469. Without a unifying objective or integrating theme a curriculum tends to resemble a baggage room in a railway station full of useless material. As Dr. Kaulfers explains, "the unifying principle for instruction in foreign languages is to be sought in the societal objectives that the courses can most appropriately serve." The three values of a unified program in a foreign language are explained.
3. McFarlane, I. D.: "Aims of the Modern Language School," MLJ, XXXVIII (June '57), 43-46. Dr. McFarlane summarizes his views on the fundamental needs which any discipline should satisfy and the way in which modern languages could fulfill these needs.
4. Oake, R. B.: "Objective: Reading," FR, XXX (Jan. '57), 225-230. The writer explains the language re-

quirement for the granting of the B.A. degree at Reed College, of which the reading objective is the most useful part.

5. Reindrop, R. C.: "The Reading Aim Reexamined," MLJ, XLI (May '57), 239-243. Prof. Reindrop points out that following the publication of the Coleman Report, the reading method became entrenched throughout the nation. He brings up an important factor that has been overlooked, that the successful students of reading in literary campaigns were those who were learning their own language which they already spoke. From this the author concludes that pupils in the elementary schools should be taught to speak the language before they attempt to read it. This gives support to something that is already being done.
6. Starr, W. H.: "The Maine Language Program," PMLA, LXXII (Sept. '57), 1-10. This is a report of the languages at the University of Maine since 1946 when the Departments of Romance Languages, German and Classics were combined. This combination into one provided an impetus toward re-evaluation of methods and objectives, and of other areas as well.

II. ARMY METHOD, ASTP, INTENSIVE METHOD, LINGUISTIC-INFORMATION METHOD, ONE-BOND METHOD (7). See also: 1-6, 14-22, 57-75, 103-126, 164-220, 237-249, 266-268.

7. Adams, D. A.: "Materials and Techniques in Teaching English as a Second Language," MLJ, XLI (Dec. '57), 376-383. This article has dealt mainly with materials and techniques that are applicable to a variety of special English courses for foreign students. The recent introduction of the all aural system "has played no small part in the improvement of the intensive course."
8. Klinck, G.: "The Psychology of the Direct Method," CMLR, XIV (Fall '57), 10-14. The writer explains that the Direct Method approach in the teaching of language is the natural approach which makes it psychologically sound. This method of instruction associates words with realities which makes it meaningful and economical.
9. Moore, J. M.: "The Army Language School: An Evaluation," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 332-337. For two academic terms the writer had the privilege of serving on the staff of the Army Language School—a most rewarding experience. Since little is known to the teaching profession in regard to this school, we are given a brief discussion of its methods and their adaptability to academic classes.

10. Parker, F.: "The Teaching of English in a Soviet Middle School," MLJ, XLI (May '57), 229-233. All teachers of foreign languages will enjoy the writer's account of this visit to a Soviet School where intensive training in English and other languages is given.
11. Raymond, R. C.: "The Hungarian Refugee Student Program," HE, XIV (Nov. '57), 43-45. This article explains the salient features of this program. A most important problem was the students' need for intensive language preparation.
12. Santosuosso, J. J.: "ASTP Characteristics in 55 Colleges 1941-1951: Problem of Application," MLJ, XLI (Jan. '57), 9-14. It is the purpose of this article to discuss A.B. degree admission and graduation language requirements as well as hours and credits of basic language courses together with various miscellaneous matter connected with teaching each course.
13. Shank, D. J.: "Academic Placement of Hungarian Refugee Students," CU, 32 (Summer '57), 453-456. The writer praises the work of the United States Army at Camp Kilmer in handling the hundreds of Hungarian refugees who needed to be trained intensively in the English language.

III. AURAL-ORAL, CONVERSATION, PHONETICS, PRONUNCIATION (9). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 57-75, 103-126, 164-220, 237-249, 266-268.

14. Benson, M.: "An Introduction to Russian Pronunciation," MLJ, XLI (Feb. '57), 78-80. This paper gives us an outline for introducing college students to the sounds of Russian in non-intensive courses. Stress is placed on the systematic utilization of the basic linguistic notion of contrast.
15. Gordon, E. E.: "Chinese in High School," SS, 85 (Nov. 9, '57), 334-335. In Jan., 1952 experimental classes in Conversational Chinese were begun in two San Francisco high schools. In the teaching-learning method used in the Chinese course, emphasis is on the aural-oral senses rather than the visual.

16. Hodgson, F. M.: "An Experiment in Language Learning," MLL, XXXVIII (Sept. '57), 107-110. The question of the validity of an active-oral approach to language learning is not to be answered in terms of what one feels or by statements unsupported by any evidence, but by experimentation of what occurs when such an approach is used. The writer's account of his experiment will serve as a stimulus to further thought on the subject.
17. Holzmann, A. W.: "Suggestions on Teaching German Conversation," MLJ, XLI (Apr. '57), 168-169. The author reviews his article published in the MLJ in

October 1943. After several years he again is teaching German conversation and composition, and he employs now many different and improved devices in his teaching.

18. Plaut, J.: "The Auditive Method of Teaching Foreign Languages," *HP*, XXXIX (Nov. '57), 54-56. "The Auditive Method of teaching languages was born out of the total failure of all other systems—including the Direct Method—effectively to establish language mastery, and of the fatal fact that the instruction was overburdened by visual emphasis, while aural considerations were continually ignored."
19. Siciliano, E. A.: "Suggestions on the Use of Written Accents in Italian," *I*, XXXIV (Dec. '57), 245-248. The writer's experiment is purely academic and "is a mental exercise conjured up in the cloister of a tired teacher's mind to seek an answer to this disturbingly repetitious difficulty of word-stress—and he has attempted to foist parts of the Spanish stress system upon the Italian language."

IV. BIBLIOGRAPHY, REPORTS, STATISTICS, SURVEYS (32). See also: 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 103-126, 164-220, 237-249, 266-268, 269-277.

23. Andersson, T.: "The Liberal Arts and the National Foreign Language Program," *EF*, XXI (May '57), 389-395. Dr. Andersson reviews the status of modern foreign language teaching in American schools. Our colleges and our universities are called upon to retool for the training of language teachers in the new key. This is carefully explained. "It is perhaps this relationship between language and literature which suggests most directly the relevance of the liberal arts to our Foreign Language Program."
24. "Bibliography Americana Germanica, 1956," *AGR*, XXIII (Apr.-May. '57), 32-40. Here is the sixteenth bibliography on German-American studies made under the auspices of the Anglo-German Literary Relations Group of the Modern Language Association of America.
25. Brown, P. A., et al.: "Annual Bibliography for 1956," *PMLA*, LXXII (Apr. '57), 147-181. This Bibliography will be of help to teachers of all languages. References on the various languages and literatures are grouped according to languages, and are listed alphabetically by language.
26. "German Literature of the Nineteenth Century, 1830-1880," *GR*, XXXII (Apr. '57), 113-137. This tenth annual survey, covering the year 1955 and dealing with German Literature of the nineteenth century, was compiled by members of the Research and Bibliography Committee of the German IV Group of the Modern Language Association of America.
27. Hammer, C. Jr.: "Stress the German-English Cognates!" *MLJ*, XLI (Apr. '57), 177-182. This article "offers the findings of a twofold survey: first, of elementary and intermediate grammars and readers now in use with regard to their treatment of cognates; secondly, of the role which related words play numerically on the lower instructional levels. Frequency lists form the basis of this study."
28. Huebener, T.: "Foreign Language Enrollments in New York City," *MLJ*, XLI (May '57), 252-253. With its offering of eight languages the New York City school system maintains what is no doubt the richest foreign language program on the secondary level. The enrollment figures for the various languages are given.
29. Iannucci, J. E.: "Meaning Discrimination in Bilingual Dictionaries: A New Lexicographical Technique," *MLJ*, XLI (Oct. '57), 272-281. This study is an investigation and critique of the various devices now used in bilingual dictionaries to effect meaning discrimination, and it is an attempt to clarify the function of meaning discrimination. An entirely new technique is outlined for us at the close of the article.
30. Keppler, K.: "Problems of German-English Dictionary Making," *MLJ*, XLI (Jan. '57), 26-29. In a few German-English dictionaries there appear some traditional mistakes. Therefore, the writer's remarks are chiefly dedicated to the examination of the nature of these mistakes. An attempt is made to raise a number of important questions of German-English dictionary making.
31. Luciani, V.: "Bibliography of Italian Studies in America," *I*, XXXIV (Mar. '57), 52-57; (June '57), 110-114; (Sept. '57), 171-178; (Dec. '57), 249-252. Recent books, several articles (Oct.-Dec. '56); (Jan.-Mar. '57); (Apr.-June '57); (July-Sept. '57), and addenda are briefed. Reviews are listed (1953-1958).
32. Mildener, K. W.: "FL Program Notes," *PMLA*, LXXII (Mar. '57), viii-xii; (Apr. '57), v-viii; (June '57), ix-xii; (Sept. '57, Part I), vii-x; (Sept. '57, Part II), xi-xvi; (Dec. '57), xii-xv. In these sections all teachers of modern foreign languages will find many items of interest and value as FLS and Reflective Thought, FL Program Reports, Brief Notes, Archives of Languages of the World, The Linguists' Club, Did You Know That?, FL Briefs, Predictions, Many Tongues, Quick Quotes, As Others See Us, Call to Action.
33. Mildener, K. W.: "The MLA College Language Manual Project: History and Present Status," *PMLA*, LXXII (Sept. '57), 11-18. The Foreign Language Program sponsored in May 1956 a Conference on Criteria for a College Textbook in Beginning Spanish, held at MLA headquarters. As a guide, the participants used a summary report of an earlier Conference on the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages. A statement in this report, agreed upon by all, of some fundamental principles regarding teaching was considered very pertinent. These principles were the basis for the policy statement adopted by the Steering Committee of the FL Program in April.
34. Mousolite, P. S.: "Foreign Language Enrollments in Adult Education: Fall 1956," *PMLA*, LXXII (Sept. '57), 19-21. This survey is restricted to the quantitative evaluation of foreign language teaching during the fall term of 1956 in adult education and correspondence programs sponsored by institutions of higher education.
35. Ohles, J. F.: "Danish Education—General or Specialized?" *SS*, 85 (Feb. 2, '57), 41-43. The question of general versus specialized education in the United

- States is frequently pursued. Let us look to education in Denmark that lends itself to a comparative survey. Languages play an important part in the educational program.
36. Ornstein, J.: "The Development and Status of Slavic and East European Studies in America since World War II," *ASEER*, XVI (1957), 369-388. This study is intended as an over-all view of teaching and research in the Slavic and East European Field. The need for a new study became apparent since ten years had elapsed since Coleman's third survey.
 37. Pacific, S. and Brooks, N.: "Teaching Italian in the Early Grades—A Progress Report from New Haven, Conn.," *I*, XXXIV (Mar. '57), 1-8. An experimental "pilot" class was organized at the Roger Sherman School, New Haven, Conn. Third grade pupils enrolled in the summer program selected Italian. This was a most successful experiment. The Training Program for Teachers is also explained.
 38. Peyre, H.: "Message from the President," *FR*, XXXI (Oct. '57), 64-66. A review is given of various problems in the teaching of languages, and the president of the AATF makes a plea to the language teachers "to cast an occasional glance beyond its usual vistas and to take cognizance of the general context in which our own problems are to be formulated."
 39. Robinson, H. R.: "Educational News and Editorial Comment: Foreign Language and Basic Learnings," *ESJ*, LVII (May '57), 418-420. The section includes an interesting paper by R. C. Geigle, superintendent of schools in Reading, Pennsylvania, reporting the results of a study of the achievement of basic learnings before and after the inclusion of instruction in foreign language in the Oakmont elementary schools.
 40. Scherer, G. A. C.: "The Forgetting Rate in Learning German," *GQ*, XXX (Nov. '57), 275-277. This report deals with an attempt to establish the extent to which students who have completed first-year college German "forgot all they knew" during the summer months when they studied no German.
 41. Shane, H. G.: "We Can Be Proud of the Facts," *NS*, 60 (Sept. '57), 44-47. All language teachers will be interested in high school enrollment trends in foreign languages in proportion to the growth in population.
 42. Sharp, S. L.: "The Tape Recorder as an Aid to the Reading Approach," *GQ*, XXX (May '57), 158-161. This article is a report on how the tape recorder can be used in teaching the reading of German. The method described here has been developed at the College of San Mateo over the past seven years.
 43. Skelton, R. B.: "High-School Foreign Language Study and Freshman Performance," *SS*, 85 (June 8, '57), 203-205. The basis for this study is the Registrar's Report on the scores obtained by students matriculating at Alabama Polytechnic Institute in Sept. '55. This study established a highly significant superiority of students presenting high-school FL over their non-FL counterparts in each of the six achievement tests.
 44. Stiles, L. J.: "American Education and Its Influence Abroad," *WJE*, 89 (Mar. '57), 7-9. This is an excellent review of the problems facing us in our attempt to assist areas of the world to raise their educational level. Many are the difficulties revealed here.
 45. Thompson, L. S.: "Recent Books in the Field of Romance Languages and Literature," *KFLQ*, IV (No. 3, '57), 164-168. All teachers of modern foreign languages will find this annotated bibliography of great help in their language teaching.
 46. Umstattd, J. G.: "Our Schools Keep Pace with Jets and Atoms," *TO*, 41 (June '57), 10-12. This is condensed from the Texas Journal of Secondary Education. In the field of foreign language teaching the secondary schools have not yet made the adjustment indicated by the times. Survival demands that schools offer more languages. National statistics on languages in secondary schools are given.
 47. Van Eenenaam, E.: "Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology for 1955," *MLJ*, XLI (Feb. '57), 81-103. The 378 items of this article are divided into twenty-one topical classifications. The 1955 periodicals, with the number of items from each one, are listed with code letters used in the list. At the end an authors' index is given.
 48. Wagoner, R. A.: "The French Menu, A Textbook Blind Spot," *MLJ*, XLI (Nov. '57), 342-345. The writer has made an examination of many current textbooks for elementary and intermediate levels of instruction and finds that they fail to disclose any extensive references to food—any basic list of French food terms. It is hoped that the list given will be of service to other French instructors.
 49. Walsh, D. D. and Mead, R. G.: "The MLA Foreign Language Program," *H*, XL (Mar. '57), 78-80; (May '57), 217-220; (Sept. '57), 344-352; (Dec. '57), 469-477. The Editors explain many important items of interest in the MLA Foreign Language Program which all teachers of Spanish will want to read.
 50. Whitworth, K. B., Jr.: "Foreign Language Study in the United States," *MLF*, XLII (June '57), 52-59. Three years have elapsed since Wm. R. Parker published the first edition of "The National Interest and Foreign Languages." The author surveys the new facts, figures, and opinions during these years and brings Parker's information up to date.

V. CORE CURRICULUM, CORRELATION, GENERAL EDUCATION, INTEGRATION (5).

See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 164-220, 255-265.

51. Brickman, W. W.: "Social Studies and Foreign Languages," *SS*, 85 (Feb. 16, '57), 60. One of the resolutions of the National Council for the Social Studies is explained. The aim is excellent, but as Editor Brickman says, "A knowledge of a foreign language and a foreign culture from original source materials is necessary."
52. Finocchiaro, M.: "A Language Program for Foreign-Born Students," *HP*, XXXIX (Feb. '57), 15-28. This article deals with an integrated two-year program with emphasis on developing language competency so that pupils can communicate in everyday life situations. The writer reviews briefly the materials and suggestions that were given to the teachers of the language core phase of the program.
53. Maza, H.: "Language Differences and Political Integration," *MLJ*, XLI (Dec. '57), 365-372. "This article was written while the writer was a consultant on the Political Integration Project Research Center on World Political Institutions, Woodrow Wilson Center, Princeton University." The main thesis of the article is that language is not a basic problem in political integration.
54. Nisbet, E. D.: "Modern Languages and Science," *MLL*, XXXVIII (June '57), 49-51. The writer explains why he does not agree entirely with some of Prof. Wilson's views expressed in his article, "Modern Languages in a Technological Age."
55. Shadi, D. C.: "From High School to College in a Foreign Language," *CJSE*, 32 (Dec. '57), 455-458. All teachers of modern foreign languages will want to read this article telling of the work done by the Foreign Language Association of Northern California headed by Dr. C. Ross.

VI. CURRICULUM PLANNING, ADMINISTRATION (1). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 51-55, 57-75, 164-220, 255-265, 266-268, 269-277.

56. Lanson, E. B.: "The Gifted Child," HP, XXXIX (Oct. '57), 26-32. The necessity for more research findings about the gifted has become acute in recent years as is explained here. Language study is included.

VII. ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (19). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 51-55, 76-102, 164-220, 221-236, 237-249, 255-265, 269-277.

57. Boyle, B. O.: "German at John Morrow," PS, XXXII (Nov.-Dec. '57), 106. The children in the seventh- and eighth-grade Enrichment Program at John Morrow School are learning German. This has been a rewarding experience for both the children and the teacher.
58. Chambers, D.: "Spanish in the Elementary School: FLES: Saturation," H, XL (Mar. '57), 83-85. "The college of education with a laboratory school is a potential nerve center in a program of saturation." Many problems outlined here are discussed for us.
59. Chambers, D.: "Spanish in the Elementary School: The FLES Workshop in the College of Education," H, XL (Sept. '57), 342-343. The methods workshop as a permanent feature of the curriculum of the college of education is essential, as the writer states, to a region-by-region program of saturation in FLES. The FLES methods workshop may be developed in two phases. These are explained.
60. Clément, Sister Marie: "A Little French for Little People," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 356. All teachers of French will enjoy the account of this modest weekly *coup d'oeil* to little people who are acquiring a perspective into another civilization.
61. Dunkel, H. B. and Pillet, R. A.: "A Second Year of French in Elementary School," ESJ, LVIII (Dec. '57), 143-151. The writers explain the course in French involving all fourth- and fifth-grade children in the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools. Conclusions are offered.
62. Eaton, M., et al.: "FLES—Yes!" MLJ, XLI (Dec. '57), 373-375. This article first appeared in the NJEA Review, April, 1957. It is here reproduced with the kind permission of the authors. It is written in reply to "Foreign Language in Elementary School—How Effective?" reprinted in MLJ, October, 1957.
63. "Elementary Schools in the Big City," SLOE, 39 (June '57), 13-16. Supervisors from some forty cities spend four days exchanging ideas and discussing problems. Twenty cities represented are experimenting with the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary grades. Special opportunities in languages are given to gifted children.
64. Glassner, L. E.: "Teaching French at Liberty School," PS, XXXII (Nov.-Dec. '57), 107-109. Teaching conversational French at Liberty School leaves no doubt in the writer's mind that foreign languages have a place in the elementary school.
65. Gould, Sir R.: "Russia Revisited," PDK, 38 (Apr. '57), 285-287. Sweeping changes have taken place in Russian education. Of interest to us is the teaching of foreign languages in the kindergarten.
66. Guerra, M. H.: "Spanish in the Elementary Schools, The Foreign Language Children's Theatre: Methods and Techniques," H, XL (Dec. '57), 490-493. "Our FLES program has made many promises of a linguistic and cultural nature, while we have not documented our results with scientific evaluation. The foreign language children's theatre should be cited for its intrinsic merits." It achieves linguistic objectives and cultural values, and it embraces a wholesome philosophy of education.
67. Haugh, O. M.: "Teaching Foreign Languages in the Elementary School," H, XL (May '57), 214-217. The writer examines many questions which have been asked in regard to the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary school. He believes that we can teach foreign languages successfully at this level.
68. Hoppock, A. S.: "Foreign Language in the Elementary School—How Effective?" MLJ, XLI (Oct. '57), 269-271. "This article originally appeared in the NJEA Review (Nov. '56) and later in *The Education Digest* (Feb. 1957). It is reprinted here with the kind permission of the Journals and of the author."
69. Johnson, L. B.: "French in the Elementary School," FR, XXX (May '57), 470-477. This is a list of practical materials for classroom use which will serve the needs of French teachers and administrators for French study below the seventh grade.
70. Joyaux, G. J.: "An Experiment in East Lansing," MLJ, XLI (Mar. '57), 144-145. In this article the author attempts to throw some light on the much-debated question of foreign language teaching on the elementary level by an account of his short-lived, but quite worthwhile, experiment.
71. Letton, M. C. and Henry, N. B.: "Educational News and Editorial Comment: Teaching Russian in Grade III," ESJ, LVIII (Dec. '57), 128-129. Twenty-five children at the Congdon Campus School, State University Teachers College at Potsdam, New York, have recently completed the first phase of a unique experiment in the learning of a second language—learning Russian in the elementary school. This experiment is explained.
72. McHugh, Mrs. M. C.: "Teaching Foreign Language in the Elementary Schools," CSJ, XXXIX (Nov.-Dec. '57), 77-82. This article is a summary of the author's effort to assess the work done in the teaching of foreign languages in the elementary schools in Chicago.
73. Ratté, E. H.: "Foreign Languages for Some or for All?" MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 355. There is little doubt that a foreign language program is needed in the public elementary schools. Its success must not be jeopardized by too rapid expansion and sub-standard teaching. We must face limitations in this program and make it a well-planned, durable one that will benefit those to whom it is offered.
74. Roving Reporter: "Sixth Graders Go to Europe—Without Leaving Classroom," NS, 59 (Jan. '57), 12. Teachers of all languages will enjoy reading about this interesting project of the sixth graders at Newton, New Jersey. T. F. Taylor, elementary school principal at Newton, reported on the children's trip in the NJEA Review.
75. Willibrand, W. A.: "When German Was King: A FLES Program around 1900," GQ, XXX (Nov. '57), 254-261. This article is concerned with German in the elementary schools of Westphalia, Missouri, a settlement, which had spread over considerable portions of a four-county area long before the turn of the century.

VIII. FILMS, RADIO, RECORDINGS, TELEVISION, AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS (27).

See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 164-220, 255-265.

76. Beardsley, T. S., Jr.: "Music in the Classroom," *MLJ*, XLI (Jan. '57), 48. "If correctly employed, a record can saturate a pupil with poetry, dance rhythm, correct pronunciation, aural comprehension drill, grammar, vocabulary, and a birdseye view of a country's character or cultural atmosphere."
77. Dunham, F.: "Television's Part in the College and University Program," *HE*, XIII (Feb. '57), 105-110. Various colleges and universities have begun extensive experiments in closed-circuit television. Modern foreign languages are among the subjects offered on these programs.
78. Edington, W. H.: "Tape Exchange," *NEAJ*, 46 (Dec. '57), 582. This account of exchanging tape recordings with schools in other countries will be most interesting to teachers of foreign languages.
79. Fenner, R. J.: "A Student-Faculty Project in Foreign Language Study," *SS*, 85 (Nov. 9, '57), 336. For the past three years a member of the Romanic language department at Colgate University and several students of outstanding linguistic ability have participated in a joint student-faculty project—offering the use of the language laboratory to the high-school students for extra language experience.
80. Feuerlicht, I.: "Popular Records in Spanish Classes," *MLJ*, XLI (Apr. '57), 174-176. A growing number of conscientious teachers now make use of popular recordings and an increasing number of language textbooks, for both high schools and colleges, have introduced popular songs with or without the music. Many excellent suggestions are offered, and the beneficial results of the use of popular songs are explained.
81. "Films of Special Interest," *HP*, XXXIX (Feb. '57), 63-65; (Mar. '57), 66-69; (Nov. '57), 62-65; (Dec. '57), 30-31. All language teachers will find some films of interest in this section conducted by R. M. Goldstein.
82. Gaudin, L. S.: "Teaching the Teacher with Teaching Aids," *FR*, XXXI (Oct. '57), 47-51. A language laboratory can improve teaching if teachers make use of its facilities for self-appraisal and self-improvement. This is explained and excellent suggestions are given for an oral-aural check-up.
83. Gjerde, W. and Lattin, R.: "Classroom Use of Educational Recordings," *E*, 77 (Jan. '57), 270-275. Many schools are introducing a second language in the elementary schools with emphasis on the oral approach. A recording may very well be used to check conversational growth and to test pronunciation.
84. Grady, J. J., Jr.: "Tape Recorder Needed in Every Classroom," *NS*, 60 (Oct. '57), 95-96. The writer believes the tape recorder is to become an indispensable tool to teachers. He explains their value in language teaching.
85. Green, J.: "Events and Opinion: Teaching by Television," *CH*, 32 (Oct. '57), 111-112. This is an account of the television classes in many Pittsburgh schools over station WQED. Included are lessons in French.
86. Jeanes, R. W.: "The Tape Recorder in the Classroom," *CMLR* (Summer '57), 3-9. The tape recorder is the most versatile and the cheapest of available recording machines. It is indispensable for language teaching. Soon it will aid in the introduction of new methods in our classrooms.
87. "Kentucky Microcards," *KFLQ*, IV (No. 2, '57), 111-112. The material presented here will help to enrich many Spanish courses.
88. "Latin-American Educational Film Institute," *SS*, 85 (Mar. 16, '57), 93. This Educational Film Institute was set up in Mexico City to aid Latin-American educational development and promote wider cultural exchanges.
89. Malécot, A.: "Types of Audio Equipment for the Language Laboratory," *MLF*, XLII (June '57), 60-65. The author is Director of the UCR Language Laboratory and Consultant for the Audio-Visual Committee of the MLASC's Research Council and is therefore in a position to give us these helpful specifications for language laboratory equipment and an evaluation of various types of the market.
90. McDougal, R.: "The Development of a Language Laboratory for More Effective Second Language Teaching," *TCJ*, XXVIII (May '57), 98-101. The Language Laboratory at Indiana State Teachers College is the outgrowth of thinking over a two-year period. The equipment and use of the laboratory is explained. Helpful references are given.
91. McKee, M.: "TV for Schools," *PSJ*, 105 (Mar. '57), 278-280. The values of TV instruction are many. The study of French is included in Pittsburgh's educational television station, WQED. In fact thirty-five classes have been organized for French lessons three times a week.
92. Richardson, G.: "Visual Aids and Language Teaching," *MLJ*, XXXVIII (Sept. '57), 102-106. The writer surveys the history of visual aids in language teaching and attempts a revised assessment of their value. The article is concerned primarily with the contribution of these aids to the teaching of a language proper.
93. Roertgen, W. F.: "Plans for the Germanic Languages Laboratory at UCLA," *MLF*, XLII (June '57), 25-37. The language laboratory is designed primarily for instruction in the lower division classes of the Department of Germanic Languages. The many materials and their uses for this laboratory are fully explained as are the methods used.
94. Rosen, R. G.: "Recordings, Tapes, and Transcriptions Available to teach French I, II, and III in High Schools," *MLJ*, XLI (Nov. '57), 313-319. This is an excellent study which attempts to bring to the French teacher an exhaustive reference of recordings available to help in the teaching of French, on the various levels of the secondary school. The writer believes that recordings of all kinds are and must be an integral part of language teaching in the schools today.
95. Sánchez, J.: "Audio-Visual Aids," *MLJ*, XLI (May '57), 244-250; (Nov. '57), 346-350. Films, filmstrips, records and slides are named and explained. These are arranged alphabetically by countries. New materials on FL contain good suggestions. Addresses of distributors of audio-visual aids are listed.
96. Shampo, M. A. and West, W. A.: "The Perfect Project," *WJE*, 90 (Sept. '57), 14-15. These home-made film strips-non-photographically are excellent for use in language classes as in many others. The production of these strips is explained.
97. Shutts, F.: "Tapes Fly the Ocean," *FR*, XXX (Apr. '57), 388-391. This is an interesting account of the author's experience in launching her students upon a tape exchange with French boys and girls. French has become a vital living language to these students.
98. Silverstein, R.: "Tape Recording in the Spanish Class," *HP*, XXXIX (Mar. '57), 76. How can you revitalize interest in the oral aspect of language learning? This writer's technique is pupil-reading for the tape-recorder.
99. Tyler, I. K.: "Put It on Tape," *NEAJ*, 46 (Feb. '57), 98-100. The teacher can supplement foreign-language teaching with recorded talks by visiting exchange personnel or newly arrived children from other nations, and with recordings made by teachers on their own trips to other countries.
100. Wiley, A. S.: "A French Song with Camera and Tape," *MLF*, XLII (Dec. '57), 130-132. This descrip-

tion of a visual and an auditory presentation of a popular French song is given as a means to develop more effective ways to stimulate interest and to further the learning process in language classes.

101. Willsea, G. J.: "Poco a Poco' in Denver," AERTJ, 16 (Jan. '57), 13-15. The development and the promotion of these Spanish-Language lessons via television represent a fascinating experience in community

planning designed to satisfy the hopes of many parents in the Denver area for some kind of family foreign-language education.

102. Wojnowski, M. V.: "Foreign Language Laboratories in a High School," MLJ, XLI (May '57), 251-252. The teaching of audio and oral abilities in French, German and Spanish is greatly facilitated by the use of language laboratories at Brighton High School, Rochester, N. Y.

IX. GENERAL LANGUAGE, AUXILIARY LANGUAGE (none). See also: 57-75, 164-220, 278-291.

X. GRAMMAR, COMPOSITION, SYNTAX (24). See also: 1-6, 57-75, 164-220, 269-277, 278-291.

103. Beeler, M. S.: "Remarks on the German Noun Inflection," LL, VIII (1957-58) 39-45. This description of noun inflection in modern literary German was undertaken to test the claim that a description in terms of modern morphological analysis will be more efficient for pedagogical purposes than the traditional "word and paradigm" model found in many textbooks.
104. Bolinger, D. L.: "Prepositions in English and Spanish," H, XL (May '57), 212-214. The writer names and explains many prepositions in English and Spanish.
105. Bolinger, D. L.: "Intonation and Grammar," LL, VIII (1957-58), 31-37. All teachers of languages will enjoy this article explaining intonation and grammar. Many examples are used to illustrate the material given.
106. Delattre, P.: "La Question des deux 'a' en français," FR, XXXI (Dec. '57), 141-148. This discussion is very helpful as to the pronunciation of the two "a" in French. Many examples are given to clarify the problem.
107. Francon, M.: "Sur l'emploi de la conjonction *que* au XVI^e siècle," S, XI (Spring '57), 107-110. The use of the conjunction *que* is very carefully explained, and many examples are given.
108. Gallacher, S. A.: "Andere Gute(N) Männer," GQ, XXX (Nov. '57), 269-271. One problem, glossed over or avoided by authors of beginning and advanced grammars, concerns itself with the endings of attributive adjectives following *andere, einige*, etc. Our writer gives and explains a statement he believes should be included in future grammars in regard to this problem.
109. Hieble, J.: "Compound Words in German," GQ, XXX (May '57), 187-190. The writer is not concerned with formations that use accepted means of word formation as the endings *-er, -ung, -heit, -ig*, but with those that represent a combining of several independent elements: nouns, adjectives, adverbs with either nouns or adjectives, and adjectives with nouns or vice versa.
110. Hieble, J.: "What about the German Umlaut?" GQ, XXX (Nov. '57), 272-274. The significance of the German umlaut is often neglected in elementary grammars and classrooms. The treatment here is not an exhaustive one. The writer names and explains fourteen instances where we have a clear-cut result of umlaut in German.
111. Jeanes, R. W.: "Favorite Mistakes: Can They Be Cured?" CMLR, XIII (Winter '57), 15-20. Favorite mistakes pose a fundamental problem that must be faced. To throw light on this subject the writer analyzed the free compositions written on the third and fourth year final examinations at the University of Toronto by the same group of 37 students in 1955 and in 1956. Excellent suggestions are made.
112. Kleinjans, E.: "A Comparison of Japanese and English Object Structures," LL, VIII (1957-58), 47-52. It is the purpose of this article to deal with the difference between what are generally called the direct and indirect object expressions in English and Japanese. These terms are not used in a technical sense but as a means to identify the problem.
113. Koekkoek, B. J.: "The English Loanword *Manager* in Present-Day German," GQ, XXX (May '57), 163-166. *Manager*, the English loanword is an effective "Modewort" in contemporary German. The effectiveness of *Manager* in German depends upon certain connotative values beyond its denotative value as a label for persons carrying on a range of activities.
114. "Letters to the Editor," MLL, XXXVIII (June '57), 71-72; 72-73. Teachers of modern foreign languages will find interesting material regarding grammar in these Letters.
115. Liebesny, H. J.: "The Metaphor in Language Teaching," MLJ, XLI (Feb. '57), 59-65. We look into the nature of the many metaphors that are given. As the interest of our students in this resource of language is aroused, they will discover innumerable poetic and sharp-witted forms of transferred meanings.
116. Meiden, W.: "The Use of Modes after 'croire' and 'penser,'" FR, XXX (May '57), 462-465. The proper mode to use after these two French verbs is carefully explained, and examples are given. A tentative rule for mode after verbs of thinking and believing is suggested.
117. Raven, F. A.: "Flexibility in Old High German Weak Verbs," GR, XXXII (Feb. '57), 66-74. The high flexibility of usage in Old High German weak verbs was due to many (4) factors. These are carefully explained for us, and examples are given.
118. Schnerr, W. J.: "The Luso-Brazilian Use of 'Estar' with a Predicate Nominative," H, XL (May '57), 163-170. It is the purpose of this article (1) to analyze the use of "estar" with a predicate nominative as it occurs in Portuguese prose of the last hundred years, (2) to compare it with the usage in Brazilian of the 19th and 20th centuries, and (3) to observe the basic differences.
119. Sinnema, J. R.: "Early Introduction of the German Attributive Adjective," MLJ, XLI (Oct. '57), 294-295. The writer congratulates Dr. Winkelman for his excellent note on the teaching of the German adjective endings and wishes to share his own views on this subject.
120. Stopp, F. J.: "Indirectly Compounded Verbal Forms in Present-Day German," MLR, LII (July '57), 355-362. Examination of material collected showed two convergent processes at work. These are explained. This inquiry, in explaining the field of indirectly compounded verbs, has moved from participles to infinitives.
121. Stowell, E.: "Contrasts of Aspect in the Spanish Progressive and Passive," H, XL (Dec. '57), 467-469. "The Progressive and passive constructions are crossroads in Spanish linguistic logic, where perfective and imperfective values are combined with ideas of time and space in such a way as to reveal clearly the 'what and why' in the thinking of a vast linguistic group which enjoys an amazing syntactical uniformity."
122. Thomas, J. V.: "A Larger Concept of Language Drill,"

- MLJ, XLI (Mar. '57), 111-116. The writer wishes to make clear certain basic concepts of language drill and to assign to them terms that will identify them. Specific suggestions pertaining to the construction of textbooks and to the conducting of classes with relation to sound drill practices follow this.
123. Ulvestad, B.: "The Structure of the German Quasi Clauses," GR, XXXII (Oct. '57), 200-214. The present article deals with a large number of representative QCs taken from recent German novelistic works. These are examined to establish current usage as nearly as possible in terms of higher and lower frequencies of structural variants. The method used is structural-statistical.
124. Ulvestad, B.: "NHG 'Schmöker,'" MDU, XLIX (Nov. '57), 308-312. This is an explanation of the modern masculine noun *Schmöker*.
125. Waterman, J. T.: "The 'Possessive' Case in German," GQ, XXX (Mar. '57), 95-97. The purpose of this explanation has been to make clear the necessity of distinguishing sharply between the lexical notion of "possession" and the structural meaning of "possessive case." Examples are given.
126. Winkelman, J.: "The Tense of Indirect Discourse in German," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 355-356. "The usual rule for determining the tense of the subjunctive verb in German indirect discourse is capable of simplification." This the writer does for us, and examples are given.
- XI. INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS, EUROPEAN RELATIONS, LATIN-AMERICAN RELATIONS, PUBLIC RELATIONS, THE WAR, THE POST-WAR (30). See also: 57-75, 164-220, 266-268.
127. Allen, E. D.: "Why Not Student Exchanges at the High School Level?" FR, XXXI (Dec. '57), 136-140. The author was able to arrange exchanges between pupils of the University School at Ohio State University and high school students in France. These exchanges are very valuable.
128. Andreen, E. P.: "High School Students Visit Europe," CJSE, 32 (Apr. '57), 211-213. This stimulating account of American high school students demonstrates the great value of travel abroad. Many opportunities were given to improve international understanding.
129. "An Exchange Student in Finland," SL, XXIV (Nov. '57), 16-17. Another student reports his American Field Service experience. This exchange offers an answer to international brotherhood.
130. Bailey, H. M.: "A Junior College Helps Students of Mexican Ancestry Serve their Community," CJSE, 32 (Feb. '57), 86-89. This Good Neighbor policy works because of combined efforts of the junior college and its students. This is a most welcome report as international tensions mount.
131. Bossing, N.: "II Commission on International Education Suggests Chapter Action," PDK, 38 (Mar. '57), 228-229. The function of this Commission is to further international understanding and good will through education. This is done in various ways which are explained.
132. Cooper, M.: "High School Hands across the Border," NS, 60 (Dec. '57), 40-41. This is an excellent project to promote international good will sponsored by the Future Homemakers of America, the Ellsworth Maine High School chapter.
133. Cormack, M. L.: "Education for Living in an International Society," EO, XXX-XXXI, 61-71. The necessity to *communicate* has become urgent. The writer deplores the fact that the teaching of languages has not been one of our most successful achievements.
134. Cotner, T. E.: "International Exchange and Training Programs Administered by the Office of Education, 1939-'57," HE, XIII (May '57), 171-172. This summary is presented to give some idea of the various programs administered and the number of grantees involved since the Office of Education engaged in its international educational exchange and training programs.
135. Cox, H. B.: "Mutual Understanding through Exchange," AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57), 4-8. All teachers of languages will be deeply interested in an exchange plan, the Fulbright program, which is carefully explained for us. This program continues to make a significant contribution to the improvement in mutual cultural appreciation.
136. Cumming, H. H.; Hill, W.; Tandler, F.: "Teaching International Understanding," SLOE, 39 (Mar. '57), 7-9. Concerted effort has developed methods and materials for teaching international understanding. Many opportunities come to us in foreign language classrooms.
137. Eaton, E. M.: "Language and the Experiment in International Living," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 330-331. Modern Language teachers are constantly helping to meet the national need by stressing all five recognized aims of modern language teaching. The Experiment in International Living is a non-profit educational organization dedicated to the promotion of world understanding. This is explained.
138. Eiffert, J.: "World Peace—Teenage Style," SL, XXIV (Oct. '57), 27-28. The purpose of the American Field Service Program is to give high school students a chance to live with and to become acquainted with the life and people of the country in which they stay. This promotes world peace and good will among nations.
139. Emerson, M. F.: "International Education," SE, 21 (Feb. '57), 63-64. The writer explains many ways in which international understanding is being developed among many elementary and secondary schools in the United States and abroad. Languages play their part in this project.
140. "Fair Exchange," SLOE, 39 (Jan. '57), 12. Americans recognize the opportunities that live for them in the newcomers from other countries. By taking foreign educators into their daily lives, Americans contribute to the educational program for which the visitors have come, and Americans themselves are being educated. Both are growing in the mutual process of understanding each other.
141. Ferguson, A. W.: "The American Teacher Abroad," PSJ, 105 (Jan. '57), 198-199. In many ways the American classroom teachers are effective ambassadors for their country. The Fergusons are well qualified to make this assertion because of their wide travel.
142. Filler, L.: "American Studies Abroad," SS, 85 (Sept. 14, '57), 244-247. The study of America today is a factor in educational curricula throughout the world. Much good work has been done through official and unofficial American agencies to encourage concern for American Studies Abroad. Many are explained.
143. "German Student Exchange Program," AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57) 8, et seq. All teachers will enjoy reading this account of the exchange program for students of German.
144. Graham, G. and De Puy, B.: "Preparing for International Friendships," SE, 21 (Oct. '57), 261, et seq. The writers explain many ways to prepare our students for international friendships. A core curriculum is one suggestion, and foreign language teachers are needed for this curriculum.
145. Holland, K.: "Opportunities to Study or Teach Abroad," EF, XXII (Nov. '57), 13-20. Today educators assume that international study and training plays an important role in the educative process. Study abroad has become an integral part of higher education in the United States. This is an excellent

- view of the many opportunities to go abroad.
146. Huebener, T.: "The Schools of Puerto Rico," HP, XXXIX (Dec. '57), 5-7. Dr. Theodore Huebener, Director of Foreign Languages, visited Puerto Rico and consulted with the supervisors of Public Instruction in San Juan. He visited ten schools of different types in various parts of the island. Observation of 22 classes, both in rural and metropolitan areas, gave Dr. Huebener a very favorable impression of public education in Puerto Rico.
 147. Hutchins, F. S.: "Commission on International Cooperation through Education," AACB, XLIII (Mar. '57), 163-164. This is the result of the recommendations made by the Commission in its last report.
 148. Kent, T.: "Pakistan Share-Your-Birthday Program," CJEE, XXVI (Aug. '57), 33-34. Here is an excellent lesson in international relations. The children give of themselves and will better understand one another in later years.
 149. Mason, J. A.: "Ambassadors in Blue Jeans," NPT, 52 (Nov. '57), 8-10. These children (2,000) in Bitburg were there to take part in an International Students' Day at the American school on the nearby United States Air Force Base. This is an excellent project in international amity.
 150. Meyer, A. E.: "Language and Communication," PMLA, LXXII (Apr. '57), 13-22. The writer submits for our consideration three simultaneous approaches to communication between our own people, and between the American people and foreign nations.
 151. Sayers, R. S.: "New York Teachers in Puerto Rico Schools," HP, XXXIX (Nov. '57), 5-16. All teachers of modern foreign languages will enjoy this account of the new exchange program between the United States and Puerto Rico which made it possible for the writer to teach in San Juan. The work was challenging and interesting because of the opportunity of testing and studying the new method of teaching English used in the Puerto Rican schools.
 152. Sorrells, D. J.: "An Educational Mission in Thailand," SS 85 (Sept. 28, '57), 264-265. This marvelous adventure in international understanding was experienced by the writer for two years.
 153. Trepp, L.: "Experiencing Western Civilization," JCJ, XXVIII (Nov. '57), 150-155. This was a most successful project. The aim was to take some of the junior college students to the sources of Western culture so they would return home with new ideas and incentives. Excellent international relations are established as a result of this experiment.
 154. Vent, M. H.: "Teacher Exchange with Germany," AGR, XXIV (Dec. '57-Jan. '58), 24-26. All teachers of languages will enjoy this account of a teacher from Württemberg who had visited the United States on a teacher exchange program with Germany sponsored by the Department of State in cooperation with the United States Office of Education.
 155. Wallace, J. A.: "Education Goes to Sea," EO, XXX-XXXI, 78-84. All teachers of modern foreign languages will be interested in this account of The Council on Student Travel of 1957 with its many short-term foreign travel programs.
 156. Wood, R. C.: "When Cultures Meet," AGR, XXIII (Feb.-Mar. '57), 3. The teaching of German must not be neglected. People of culture meet often. In their exchange of ideas and of cultural gifts lies the road to an enduring peace throughout the world.

XII. LESSON PLANNING (1). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 164-220.

157. "Letters to the Editor," H, XL (May '57), 208-209; (Sept. '57), 326-330; (Dec. '57), 461-464. Teachers will find interesting material on literature and grammar in this section.

XIII. MISCELLANEOUS, LEGISLATION (6). See also: 56, 57-75, 164-220.

158. Abbott, O. L.: "The Case for Translation," MLJ, XLI (May '57), 253-254. Notwithstanding the objections which the writer has pointed out and others which may be made, the advantages of translation are manifold.
159. Bungé, A. F.: "How to Share Classrooms—And Like It," CTAJ, 53 (Mar. '57), 18-19. Here are evidences of teamwork between the day school and the evening school Spanish teachers. Various interesting and outstanding projects are explained for us.
160. Mendiones, M. L. D.: "We Can All Get Ready," NPT, 51 (Mar. '57), 21-22. "Consider this travel plan: You take off at any time, head toward any point, and return at will—all without ever packing a suitcase. Pleasure is guaranteed, and who knows when the dress rehearsal may swing into a full-fledged performance?"
161. Milligan, E. E.: "Some Principles and Techniques of Translation," MLJ, XLI (Feb. '57), 66-71. This article is limited to a consideration of French-English translation in the prose medium. The writer includes a partial bibliography which testifies to the extent of interest in the subject.
162. Newmark, P.: "Standards of Translation," JEL, 89 (June '57), 248-250. Literary and scientific texts are not dealt with in the same way. The translator's problems are enumerated.
163. Young, P. W.: "A Seminar in France," WJE, 90 (Sept. '57), 12. This instructor in French shares her delightful experiences of a summer in France.

XIV. MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY (57). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 51-55, 57-75, 76-102, 164-220, 221-236, 237-249, 255-265, 269-277.

164. Allen, E. D.: "A New Course for Advanced Foreign Language Students in High School," MLJ, XLI (Mar. '57), 121-123. This experiment, combining French III and Spanish III into one course, was most successful for it met the needs, interests and problems of third-year language students.
165. Andersson, T.: "Languages in the New Key," PMLA, LXXII (Apr. '57), 49-55. Dr. Andersson gives us a very thorough picture as he traces the many developments in the growing trend in favor of foreign languages in our country, and he points out various outstanding needs—today and tomorrow—for teachers of modern foreign languages.
166. Blackwood, P. E.: "Who Has the Penny?" SLOE, 39 (June '57), 7 et seq. At two conferences on the education of migrant children the conferees heard reports of school and community projects. Of interest to us are the classes in which the migrants are taught English and Spanish.
167. Bowman, E.: "A Day in a French Public School," PJE, 35 (July '57), 23-26. All teachers of French will enjoy reading this account of Prof. Bowman's experience.

- rience in a French public school.
168. Brandon, W. R.: "The Value of a Foreign Language Course to the Deaf Student," GQ, XXX (Jan. '57), 1-5. The information given in this article comes from the writer's experience in teaching French, German and Spanish at Gallaudet College, the only college for the deaf in the world.
169. Brown, O. H.: "We Taught Them English Kindly," NEAJ, 46 (Sept. '56), 399. This is a very interesting account of teaching English conversation to officers in the Republic of Korea Army. These men had come to Fort Sill, Oklahoma, to study artillery.
170. Caldwell, O. I.: "The Challenge of the Next Ten Years," PSJ, 105 (Apr. '57), 326, et seq. New curricula which are functional must be devised. Special consideration should be given to the problem of languages. It is high time Americans improved their competence in foreign languages.
171. Caldwell, O. I.: "The Challenge of the Next Ten Years," EO, XXX-XXXI, 43-53. See article #170.
172. Cannon, G. H.: "Linguistic Science and the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language," CE, 19 (Nov. '57), 73-75. In English classes for foreign students linguistic science has made some great contributions to teaching. In Prof. Fries' work *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* and the ACLS model, *Structural Notes and Corpus*, a knowledge of linguistics has been put to good pedagogical use.
173. Capone, G. R.: "Teaching English as a Second Language," HP, XXXIX (Oct. '57), 44-46. Many excellent suggestions are listed for the teaching of English as a second language. Several are applicable to the teaching of modern foreign languages.
174. Couillard, L. E.: "The Role of Languages in the Development of National Consciousness: The Canadian Experience," PMLA, LXXII (Apr. '57), 43-48. The writer explains the linguistic situation in Canada with regard to the English and French languages. The trend points to the role of these two languages in the development of national consciousness in Canada.
175. Davis, K. S.: "Written and Oral," JEL, 89 (Dec. '57), 505-508. All teachers of modern foreign languages will enjoy this article in favor of teaching modern languages and the explanation of some of the problems in teaching them.
176. del Rio, A.: "Perspectives and Directions Old and New," MLJ, XLI (Jan. '57), 3-8. The writer discusses in this Commencement address some problems of common concern to educators and to teachers of foreign languages and cultures.
177. De Torrenté, H.: "The Role of Language in the Development of Swiss National Consciousness," PMLA, LXXII (Apr. '57), 29-31. This is a discussion of the influence of several languages upon the national consciousness. Switzerland wants a plurality of languages; she defends it and promotes it by every means within her power.
178. Douds, E. B.: "French for Travelers—Old Style," FR, XXX (May '57), 459-461. In the article we join the writer "as we embark for Paris . . . meeting en route a cultivated Person or so from Boston, in search, as we are, of 'matter truly useful and fit for polite company'."
179. "East U. S. Colleges Teach Most Foreign Languages," PDK 38 (Jan. '57) 140. See article #206.
180. Edwards, T. W.: "A Plea for Russian in Grammar Schools," MLL, XXXVIII (Mar. '57), 23-27. Is Russian sufficiently valuable from an educational point of view to merit inclusion in grammar school curricula and is such inclusion a practical possibility? These and other questions are discussed.
181. Finlay, I. F.: "The Case for Dutch," MLJ, XXXVIII (June '57), 66-68. The writer considers important reasons why languages are studied and how the Dutch language fits into the picture. He concludes that the study of the Dutch language has much of potential value and certain interest for the English student, in all respects comparable with the probable benefit that will be derived from a study of French, German or Spanish, at least up to normal school standards.
182. "FL Program," FR, XXXI (Oct. '57), 67-69; (Dec. '57), 164-165; (Feb. '57), 315. All teachers of modern foreign languages will be interested in the many items explained here.
183. "Foreign Language Conference," SLOE, 39 (Apr. '57), 4. All teachers of modern foreign languages will be interested in the six topics listed which were given special attention at the Foreign Language Conference, May 8-10, called by the Office of Education. See article #206.
184. "Foreign Languages in Colleges," SS, 85 (Mar. 16, '57), 92. See article #206.
185. "Foreign Language Teaching in Colleges," HE, XIII (Jan. '57), 93-94. A survey of 971 American colleges and universities conducted by the foreign language program of the Modern Language Association of America shows that French is the most highly favored foreign language in America. Other interesting statistics regarding foreign languages are given.
186. Gelman, M.: "Dictation in Modern Language Teaching," CMLR, XIII (Spring '57), 20-27. Dictation is the best quick all-around test of knowledge of any language. It tests exact knowledge of sounds, of orthographic symbols of those sounds, of vocabulary, of comprehension of both spoken and written language and of fundamental grammatical rules.
187. Guerra, M. H.: "'Old Styles' and 'The New Look' in Foreign Languages," MLJ, XLI (Jan. '57), 15-19. Dr. Guerra pays an excellent tribute to the fine record of Miss Edna E. Babcock, Director of Foreign Languages of the Seattle Public Schools, after which he discusses the many ways in which FLES is bringing new life to the American curriculum in so far as the foreign language education at all levels is concerned. Problems are evident, but solutions are offered for them.
188. Hechinger, F. M.: "The Saving Grace," NEAJ, 46 (Jan. '57), 19-20. Big-city systems are as good as they are because of their teachers. One example given is that of a Spanish teacher and her 10th-grade class. They were beginners, but not an English word was spoken all through the hour. A Spanish film was used to good advantage.
189. Hill, W. C. and Vickers, P. T.: "Sorry, No Hablo Español," TO, 41 (Dec. '57), 20-22. Each author deplores the shortage of foreign language study in the Texas Public Schools, especially Spanish. Each writer sees the practical need for increased language study. The need for language teachers should not be overlooked in the present scramble for those in math and science.
190. Hingorani, D. K.: "The Role of Languages in the Development of National Consciousness in India," PMLA, LXXII (Apr. '57), 32-37. The writer gives us a brief review of many conditions in India. From this review it is evident that the linguistic problem in India is very complicated.
191. Huebener, T.: "Further Comments on the New York City FL Syllabus," MLJ, XLI (Oct. '57), 296-297. Dr. Huebener undertakes to answer several questions in regard to the New York City Syllabus. These were raised by Prof. Pei in the March issue of MLJ. See article #208.
192. Hutchinson, E. R.: "Foreign Language in a Campus School," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 354-355. In New York State one of the pioneering institutions in this foreign language program is the State University Teachers College at Potsdam. The campus school of the college is explained.
193. Irving, T. B.: "How Hard Is Arabic?" MLJ, XLI (Oct. '57), 289-291. The writer deemed it necessary to put in writing some of his observations on "How Hard Is Arabic?" He says Arabic is hard and gives

three reasons for his opinion.

194. Jennings, A.: "The Teaching of English to the Foreign Born," *MLJ*, XLI (Nov. '57), 338-341. The writer is truly qualified to teach a class in English for the Foreign Born in the Adult Education Division of the St. Louis Public Schools. This type of teaching poses problems that are explained. Conclusions are drawn.
195. Johnston, M.: "Language Needs in Government," *SLOE*, 39 (Apr. '57), 14-15. This conference worked to measure national needs at the Federal level. This group will consider ways to acquaint school people with the shortage of Americans trained in a foreign language and to indicate needed modifications in our language-teaching program.
196. Johnston M.: "Modern Foreign Languages in the High School," *SLOE*, 39 (June '57), 8-9. The participants in this Conference met to consider how modern foreign language programs in the high school can be redesigned to serve the need of our country.
197. Johnston, Mrs. N. M.: "Challenge International," *VJE*, L (Apr. '57), 26, et seq. All teachers of modern foreign languages will enjoy this article in which the author explains her methods and materials used for foreign-born wives of Navy personnel at Yorktown in teaching them to learn English.
198. Klein, R. J.: "The University of Maryland's Overseas Program," *HE*, XIII (Apr. '57), 154-156. Maryland's overseas program, composed of three divisions, is a most successful program. Foreign languages are included.
199. Koutaisoff, E.: "Russian Textbooks," *MLL*, XXXVIII (Dec. '57), 143-146. The Advisory Council on Scientific Policy urges the provision of more courses in the Russian language. It seems opportune to survey a few of the available textbooks. This is done with the hope of evoking a response from teachers of Russian.
200. Kutscher, E. Y.: "The Role of Modern Hebrew in the Development of Jewish-Israeli National Consciousness," *PMLA*, LXXII (Apr. '57), 38-42. Modern Hebrew is a recreated language, a new Hebrew dialect, made of several ingredients. Our writer traces the historical background without which his words on Modern Hebrew might remain quite unintelligible.
201. Lado, R.: "Editorial," *LL*, VIII (1957-58), 1-6. In this editorial Dr. Lado discusses the research and training needs in language teaching with special attention to English as a foreign language.
202. Merker, R.: "For the Improvement of Modern Language Study," *MLJ*, XLI (Mar. '57), 145-146. "Sad as it is to admit, the 'language curtain' still exists in 1956." The writer offers a few suggestions relative to the problem.
203. Mischel, S.: "Improving the Teaching of Foreign Languages," *HP*, XXXIX (Dec. '57), 39-40. What is it that ails foreign language teaching in our schools? Many good suggestions to improve foreign language teaching are given.
204. Mott, H. W.: "The Teaching of the Russian Language in American Secondary Schools—Autumn 1957," *SEEJ*, XV (Winter '57), 290-293. The results of a survey completed on Oct. 1, 1957, indicate that ten secondary schools in the United States are offering the Russian language in the 1957-58 academic year. The writer has found that western public schools and eastern private schools have attempted to establish Russian-Language programs, many of which are explained.
205. Nichols, C.: "On the Teaching of English in Europe," *MLJ*, XLI (Jan. '57), 35-36. It is the writer's purpose to present his own impressions of English teaching in Europe. These impressions he gathered while a Fulbright lecturer in Denmark and a visiting lecturer in Holland, Norway, Sweden, Germany and Italy.
206. Parker, W. R.: "Why a Foreign Language Requirement?" *CU*, 32 (Winter '57), 189-203. This paper concerns a situation in more than 800 liberal arts colleges. The foreign language requirement has fresh relevance because the recent trend of dropping this requirement for the Bachelor of Arts degree has recently been reversed.
207. Parker, W. R.: "Why a Foreign Language Requirement?" *PMLA*, LXXII (Apr. '57), 1-12. See article #206. This article is reprinted by permission from *College and University*.
208. Pei, M. A.: "The 1956 New York City Language Syllabus and the FL Scene," *MLJ*, XLI (Mar. '57), 117-120. Prof. Pei gives us a detailed discussion of the Syllabus. "The compilers of the Syllabus have conclusively proved that there is nothing basically wrong with the aims, approach or methods of language teaching in the New York high school system." Yet Prof. Pei finds some disquieting signs in the FL picture, among them the fact that "one high school student out of three is engaged in language study." He does not advocate offering language to students who have no language aptitude, but he does feel that "both students and parents should be made conscious of the desirability of language study." See article #191.
209. Pfund, H. W.: "A New Foundation Project," *AGR*, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57), 3. Many organizations have made successful efforts to promote greater interest in the learning of foreign languages at various levels. The Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation proposes a six-point program to help restore the prestige of German.
210. Pimsleur, P.: "Experimental Design in the Language Field," *MLF*, XLII (Dec. '57), 157-163. The purpose of this article is to discuss in non-technical language some of the problems involved in setting up an experiment. General considerations are mentioned and we see how they may be applied to a specific experimental situation.
211. Robinson, J. B. P.: "Educational Progress in Federation of Malaya and Singapore," *SS*, 85 (Jan. 19, '57), 24-26. Malaya presents one of the most remarkable educational problems. At present there are four languages of instruction. All children will be bilingual and some trilingual.
212. Sanborn, H.: "The Function of Language Study in Liberal Education," *PJE*, 34 (May '57), 335-350. The general purposes of a liberal education are explained as is the importance of language study by many people in many professions.
213. Scanlon, D. G.: "Patterns of Fundamental Education," *TCR*, 58 (Jan. '57), 213-226. Community Development Programs are in operation throughout the world. Many examples are given. We are especially interested in the languages taught in the various centers.
214. Shen, Y.: "Learning the Chinese Script can Be Easy," *LL*, VIII (1957-58), 17-30. The purpose of this article is to show that learning to write in Chinese can be made easy. Three related points are discussed for us.
215. Simpson, L. V.: "Floors and Doors," *FR*, XXX (Apr. '57), 383-387. The writer of this article pleads for effective instruction in foreign languages in adult education. A wealth of helpful material is supplied by the MLA office.
216. Stowell, E.: "College Spanish on the College Level," *MLJ*, XLI (May '57), 215-218. We must "get down to the business of furnishing in our Spanish classes some college level material which will be a challenge to the maturing mind. . . . There is no reason why on the college level we should continue to regard first and second year Spanish courses as accelerated preparatory school courses." Basic concepts are explained; these must be a part of a college level course.
217. The Reporter: *JHE*, XXVIII (Jan. '57), 48. See article #206.
218. Thompson, N. B.: "Learning Another Language,"

PSJ, 105 (Feb. '57), 242. et seq. All teachers of modern foreign languages will enjoy this account of the program given in observance of MFL week at Lower Merion High School.

219. Tucker, M. B.: "It's a Small World," NEAJ, 46 (Oct. '57), 426-428. The teaching of languages plays an important part in the curriculum of the UN International School which the author explains for us.

220. Wilson, L.: "Modern Languages in a Technological Age," MLL, XXXVIII (Mar. '57), 14-17. Prof. Wilson reminds us that modern language studies must play an important part in facilitating the exploitation of technical knowledge by technologists. Modern language studies will help equip our technologists to read and understand some of the resources of scientific knowledge and train linguists to apply their talent in industrial fields.

XV. MOTIVATION, STIMULATION (16). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 76-102, 164-220, 255-265.

221. Bégue, A.: "National Information Bureau News," FR, XXXI (Oct. '57), 93-96; (Dec. '57), 177-182; (Jan. '57), 252-256; (Feb. '57), 331-333; (Apr. '57) 419-420; (May '57), 501-505. All teachers of French will find much valuable material in this section conducted by Dr. Bégue.
222. "CSMF Services to Schools and Colleges," AGR, XXXIV (Oct.-Nov. '57), 40. All teachers of German will be interested in the services explained here.
223. Kenney, M.: "Foreign Exchange," CMLR, XIII (Winter '57), 21-23; (Spring '57), 34-35; (Summer '57), 10-12; (Fall '57), 22. All language teachers will find much helpful material in this section conducted by Dr. Kenney.
224. Mendels, J.: "Observance of Foreign Language Week in a Small College," MLJ, XLI (Dec. '57), 397-398. All teachers of modern foreign languages will enjoy reading about this successful Foreign Language Week in the Joliet-Lockport, Illinois area.
225. Merker, R.: "Cartoons in High School Classes," MLJ, XLI (Dec. '57), 398-399. Cartoons, as the writer explains, can serve as teaching material in high school classes even for students of limited ability and without the use of expensive equipment.
226. "News and Comment," AGR, XXIII (Jan. '57), 34-36; (Feb.-Mar. '57), 34-36; (Apr.-May '57), 28-29; (June-July '57), 33-35; (Aug.-Sept. '57), 35-37; (Oct.-Nov. '57), 34-36; (Dec. '57), 30-33. All teachers of German will find many items of interest and value in this section.
227. "News and Notes," ASEER, XVI (1957), 105-109; XVI (1957), 227-232; XVI (1957), 419-423; XVI (1957), 586-589. All teachers of Slavic and East European languages will be interested in the many items in this section.
228. "News and Notes," GQ, XXX (Jan. '57), 52-63; (Mar. '57), 135-137; (May '57), 214-216; (Nov. '57), 281-287. All teachers of German will be interested in the many items explained and the many helpful suggestions given here.
229. "News and Notes," MDU, XLIX (Jan. '57), 46; (Apr.-May '57), 212-218; (Oct. '57), 279-280; (Nov.

- '57), 330-331; (Dec. '57), 371-373. All teachers of German will be interested in the many items explained here.
230. "News and Notes," SEEJ, XV (Spring '57), 76-78; (Summer '57), 156-159; (Fall '57), 237-239; (Winter '57), 294-300. All teachers of Slavic and East European languages will find many items of interest and help in this section.
231. Nietz, J. A.: "What We Can Learn from European Schools," NS, 60 (Oct. '57), 55-59. In this interview Dr. Nietz tells us a most evident difference was in the quality and amount of foreign language teaching. Both motivation and more frequent opportunity for practice result in more effective language teaching.
232. "Notes and Discussion," FR, XXXI (Oct. '57), 52-61; (Dec. '57), 149-158; (Jan. '57), 231-235; (Feb. '57), 309-314; (Apr. '57), 395-400; (May '57), 478-481. All teachers of French will be interested in the many items explained and the valuable suggestions given here.
233. "Notes and News," H, XL (Mar. '57), 80-82; (May '57), 221-225; (Sept. '57), 352-354; (Dec. '57), 493-494. All teachers of Spanish will be interested in the many items explained by the Editors.
234. "Notes and News," MLJ, XLI (Jan. '57), 49-50; (Mar. '57), 146-147; (Oct. '57), 300; (Nov. '57), 356-357; (Dec. '57), 399. All teachers of modern foreign languages will be interested in the many items explained in this section.
235. Reseigh, Mrs. L.: "Adventure through Letters," CTAJ, 53 (Mar. '57), 35-36. All teachers of Spanish will enjoy this account of the adventure that may be brought into your classroom through the exchange of letters.
236. Sinnema, J. R.: "Cartoons in Conversation Classes," MLJ, CLI (Mar. '57), 124-125. Our writer has for several years used cartoon strips as a supplementary device to guide students in descriptive, narrative or conversational sequences. This is explained. Cartoon strips without captions have been found to be best. This use of pictures is no substitute for other classroom techniques.

XVI. PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING, TECHNIQUES OF INSTRUCTION (13). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 51-55, 56, 57-75, 164-220, 221-236.

237. Brushwood, J. S.: "The Responsibility of Modern Language Instruction to the Liberal Arts Program," JGE, X (Apr. '57), 104-107. The writer explains many responsibilities that we teachers of modern foreign languages have since public interest in foreign-language study has joined with new professional enthusiasm to create a kind of language renaissance.
238. Chavez, S. J., and Erickson, T. L.: "Teaching American Children from Spanish-Speaking Homes," ESJ, LVII (Jan. '57), 198-203. An effort in the direction of teaching American children from Spanish-speaking homes was made during the summer of 1955 in a seminar-workshop at the University of Colorado, directed by Dr. Chavez. Here he discusses the cultural background, etc. of these children. Miss Erickson discusses the problem of reading readiness.

239. Davis, J. E.: "Teaching Spanish in a Bilingual Area," H, XL (May '57), 206-207. These observations make no pretense at originality. They deal with experiences and situations common to any teacher in a bilingual area. The writer hopes these notes may serve to stimulate thought about the subject and to lead other Spanish instructors to contribute their observations and ideas regarding the problems involved.
240. Editorial: "Bilingual Children," ASBJ, 134 (May '57), 62. The problem of providing adequate services for immigrant children and in general for children who are living in bilingual families is explained for us.
241. Hofmann, M. S.: "Can the Mother Tongue Be Retained for Children of German Immigrants?" AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57), 15-17. This interesting article will provoke much comment from educators

- whose experience and opinion may be different.
242. "In the Mail Bag," AGR, XXIV (Dec. '57-Jan. '58), 39-40. Here are two additional comments on M.S. Hofmann's article on the difficulties of bilingual training in the AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57), 15-17.
 243. Leopold, W. F.: "American Children Can Learn Their German Mother Tongue," AGR, XXIV (Dec. '57-Jan. '58), 4-6. The writer publishes this reply to M. S. Hofmann's Article on the difficulties of bilingual training in the AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57), 15-17. See article #242 for the two additional replies.
 244. Linke, W.: "International Ties between Elementary Schools," AGR, XXIII (Apr.-May '57), 18-19. International ties have been strengthened in various ways as are explained. The writer discusses the problem from the point of view of West Berlin elementary schools which include the first six grades. This includes a description of the motivations which led to the adoption of the affiliation project by the Paula-Dehmel-Schule in Berlin. See article #247.
 245. Mayer, E.: "An 'Ear' for Languages," MLJ, XLI (Jan. '57), 39-40. The writer does not dispute the statement that an "ear" for languages exists. He wishes to question the commonly-held opinion on what to do with those who do not have such a gift. He believes that something can be done for the latter; analysis of the right kind will develop an "ear" in the most linguistically tone-deaf students.
 246. Nida, E. A.: "Some Psychological Problems in Second Language Learning," LL, VIII (1957-58), 7-15. Have we overlooked some significant factors in the language learning process when one does not seem to be able to learn a foreign language? Have we become so absorbed in the development of techniques that we have forgotten the student? No doubt, we have failed to regard seriously many important psychological problems which are discussed.
 247. Sack, M. G.: "Bridges of Friendship," AGR, XXIII (Aug.-Sept. '57) 9-10, et seq. This is a companion piece to the article by W. Linke whose article appeared in the AGR, XXIII (Apr.-May '57), 18-19. See article #244.
 248. Von Raffler-Engel, W.: "Investigation of Italo-American Bilinguals," I, XXXIV (Dec. '57), 239-244. For the purpose of this article the writer restricts the term "bilingualism" to what might be called "phonic equilingualism." The result of his analysis of the speech patterns of Italo-American bilinguals bears out a fundamental psychological diversity between "phonetics" and "semiotics."
 249. Waterman, J. T.: "Basic Syntax for Language Learning," GQ, XXX (Nov. '57), 262-268. Teaching a student a foreign language can be easier if he is made aware of the intricate processes which he uses with ease in his own speech. The article is devoted to a review of some of the more common structuring devices—most of them are found in all languages.

XVII. READING, MATERIALS, METHODS, VALUES (5). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 23-50, 51-55, 57-75, 164-220, 269-277, 278-291.

250. "A New Method of Language Teaching," FED, 22 (Oct.-Dec. '57), 121. English lessons for pupils in Paris are a highlight. They take the form of a visit to a Paris cinema to see an English or American film in the original language version. The film is chosen for its literary or cultural value. After the show the pupils write about it for their homework.
251. Johnston, M.: "References on Foreign Languages in the Elementary School," MLJ, XLI (Apr. '57), 170-173. This list includes a number of books and articles for language teaching in the elementary schools. Included is a fairly complete list of reference material. One item we notice missing is the "Annual Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology" which has a large and excellent section dealing with languages in the elementary school.
252. Johnston, M. and Ferreira, S. L.: "Useful References for Teachers of Foreign Languages," MLJ, XLI (Nov. '57), 309-312. This list includes references for teachers of foreign languages. Included is a fairly complete list of reference material. One item we notice

missing is the "Annual Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology" with topical headings which suggest excellent materials for teachers of foreign languages.

253. Jones, W. K.: "Cultivating Reading Speed in Spanish," MLJ, XLI (Mar. '57), 126-130. Since professional journals in the field of modern foreign languages offer little help on improving reading ability, the skill easiest to attain, the writer proposes to rush into "regions untrod by angels, and see what can be worked out." Various methods are explained.
254. Kaulfers, W. V.: "Beyond the Textbook," MLJ, XLI (Oct. '57), 284-288. The devices that Dr. Kaulfers describes in this article are designed to supplement not to replace the textbook. They have value as supplementary methods for use after the students have done enough exercises to have a clear conception of the way certain things are said in specific circumstances. They have a twofold purpose. The special applications of each device are indicated, and sample "directions to students" are given.

XVIII. REALIA, ACTIVITIES, CIVILIZATION, CLUBS, SOCIALIZATION (11).

See also: 1-6, 57-75, 76-102, 164-220, 221-236.

255. Chang, Fu-L.: "Cultural Patterns as Revealed in Chinese Proverbs," KFLQ, IV (No. 4, '57), 171-176. The cultural heritage perhaps can best be found in the proverbs of the Chinese common people. Many facts regarding Chinese society are explained which help us to understand the many Chinese proverbs that the writer includes in this paper.
256. Eblen, V.: "A Guided Program of Student Clubs," NS, 60 (Nov. '57), 60-61. The writer shows how very valuable student clubs are. Included in the discussion are activities of a Spanish club.
257. Flocks, M. and Levy, J.: "Hi, Ho, Come to the Fair," SL, XXIV (Nov. '57), 3. At the Annual Country Fair at Woodrow Wilson High School in Washington, D. C.

the Spanish Club's contribution was The Wheel of Many Countries. It was spun by the club's officers and brought riches such as Spanish dolls, hats, records to the winners.

258. Jaeckel, H.: "The Role of a Language Club in a Community College," JCJ, XXVIII (Nov. '57), 137-138. All teachers of foreign languages will be deeply interested in the writer's account of the activities and success of the language club in Staten Island Community College, N. Y.
259. Johnston, M. C.: "Teaching Aids," H, XL (Mar. '57), 131-135; (May '57), 253-257; (Sept. '57), 392-402; (Dec. '57), 511-514. Many teachers of Spanish have written articles and suggested "Aids

for classroom or club use.

260. Lepke, A. K.: "Emphases in the Teaching of Comparative Literature," *MLJ*, XLI (Apr. '57), 157-167. In presenting these suggestions as he does the author draws from experiences gathered in a second-semester course offered to juniors and seniors of the University of New Hampshire.
261. Mc Namee, L. F.: "Life at a German University," *TO*, 41 (Aug. '57), 12-15. The author, a Texas teacher, tells us about teachers and students in German universities while in Germany for a year's study at the University of Cologne.
262. Roving Reporter: "A Preview of College Life for Language Classes," *NS*, 59 (Mar. '57), 12. French and Spanish classes at the Jamesville-De Witt High School, N. Y., spend an entire day at near-by Syracuse University. Teacher Betty Weibezahl explains that these trips help high school students in many ways.
263. Temmer, M. J.: "Problems and Prejudices in the Teaching of Literature," *MLJ*, XLI (Oct. '57), 261-

264. After examining the aspects of the immediate relationship between teacher and literary work, we consider his efforts to conceive a personal vision of literary history and then conclude the study by analyzing the teacher's responsibility to communicate this vision to his students.

264. Widmer, B.: "Extending the Curriculum by Encouraging Creative Teaching," *CJEE*, XXVI (Aug. '57), 27-32. The cultural heritages of the population in San Francisco are rich and varied. Interesting ways of teaching about the backgrounds are accomplishments of the many races and nationalities are given here in this account.
265. Williams, C. M.: "Pictures with Purpose," *NEAJ*, 46 (Mar. '57), 197-198. Flat pictures are powerful aids to learning when the right ones are used at the right time. A wise teacher will give a picture a verbal introduction. Well-selected pictures and posters will give our language classrooms the atmosphere of the language and culture being studied.

XIX. TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS, TEACHER TRAINING (3). See also: 56, 57-75, 164-220, 237-249.

266. Harris, J.: "Opportunities for Professional Improvement—An Editorial," *FR*, XXX (Apr. '57), 392-394. The writer names and explains numerous opportunities of various kinds for professional improvement for teachers of French.
267. Remak, H. H. H.: "The Training and Supervision of Teaching Assistants in German," *MLJ*, XLI (May '57), 212-214. In outlining the supervision and evaluation procedures with respect to teaching assistants in

German at Indiana University, the author wishes to make available their endeavors in an area that has been somewhat neglected.

268. Vittorine, D.: "What Makes a Good Language Teacher?" *MLJ*, XLI (Jan. '57), 48-49. Various requirements for a good language teacher are discussed. The writer has a keen desire to improve our task in order that we may provide better equipped language students for our role in world leadership.

XX. TESTING, APPRAISALS, EVALUATION (9). See also: 1-6, 56, 57-75, 164-220.

269. Barthold, A. J.: "A Blueprint for Foreign Languages in Our Public Schools," *MLJ*, XLI (Feb. '57), 72-74. The writer deems it necessary to have a re-evaluation and a re-appraisal of the role of foreign languages in our public schools. "Administrative wisdom" may well begin with a blueprint for foreign languages so as to safeguard the initial steps of the program and guide it through various stages of development.
270. Beachboard, R.: "Changing Attitudes on Tests and Measurements," *MLF*, XLII (June '57), 38-43. Arguments for and against standardized objective tests are explained, and considerations are given.
271. Brooks, N.: "Is Your Language Classroom up to Par?" *MLJ*, XLI (Oct. '57), 296. Several questions are posed as an aid to teachers of modern foreign languages in estimating the amount of language learning that takes place in their classrooms.
272. Buechel, E. H.: "Grades and Ratings in Language-Proficiency Evaluations," *MLJ*, XLI (Jan. '57), 41-47. In search for a more satisfactory and a more reliable system of determining the proficiency of language students, briefly we look into the methods applied in the modern business world for quality control. Such a system of quality control would work in education as the writer explains for us.
273. Jones, W. K.: "Placement Tests in Spanish: Why and How," *H*, XL (Sept. '57), 321-325. The writer describes a typical test in Spanish. There are discrepancies, but those who teach at Miami still believe in a placement test and continue to rely on the one they

have evolved.

274. Matluck, J. H.: "The Presentation of Spanish Pronunciation in American Textbooks," *MLJ*, XLI (May '57), 219-228. This is an appraisal of textbooks in each of the major languages taught in our schools and colleges in order to supply our students with the best possible tools. Some thirty grammars were examined to try to influence the writing and publishing of better ones.
275. Sacks, N. P.: "Current Usage in Spain," *H*, XL (Mar. '57), 23-28. This is not a mote-and-beam article. Its purpose is not to indicate that word list, grammar or dictionary (many explained for us) is inadequate. It is to underscore the fact that with the present emphasis upon the spoken idiom, our texts and standard tools are in need of a second look. Expressions given were heard from the lips of native Spaniards in normal conversational situations.
276. Templeton, M.: "Evaluation of Spanish Films," *H*, XL (Mar. '57), 106-107; (May '57), 240-241; (Sept. '57), 378-379. Interesting Spanish films for use in classroom or club are evaluated for us.
277. Woolley, L. G.: "Studying Chinese Today," *MLJ*, XLI (Nov. '57), 324-329. It is the writer's conviction that a reevaluation of motives and methods in Chinese language study is timely for reasons given. "The implications and suggestions will," he hopes, "be helpful in solving the dilemma of the modern student of Chinese."

XXI. VOCABULARY, LANGUAGE, ORTHOGRAPHY (14). See also: 1-6, 7-13, 14-22, 57-75, 103-126, 164-220, 237-249.

278. Bowen, J. D. and Stockwell, R. P.: "Orthography and Respelling in Teaching Spanish," *H*, XL (May '57), 200-205. The writers wish to reopen discussion of the possibility that a very useful tool is being neglected.

Can the pronunciation of Spanish be taught more effectively in an elementary class using only traditional orthography as the basis, or using alongside of the traditional, a pedagogical respelling which differs at

- critical points? They do not hold that respelling is a cure-all, but it is useful in intensive programs.
279. Cárdenas, D. N.: "The Application of Linguistics in the Teaching of Spanish," *H*, XL (Dec. '57), 455-460. The writer wishes to clarify a point concerning the title and its ramifications. He points out an erroneous assumption which he believes is the main cause for dissension between the language teacher and the linguist and explains what the linguist can offer to help our instruction.
280. Chomsky, W.: "Comment on Dr. Weinstein's Article," *JE*, 28 (Winter 1957-58), 21-24. The writer agrees that Dr. Weinstein's article contains some interesting information, but also a number of inaccurate statements. It is the purpose of this article to call attention to these statements and to correct them. See article #290.
281. Espinosa, A. M., Jr.: "Problemas Lexicográficos del Español del Sudoeste," *H*, XL (May '57), 139-143. Prof. Espinosa who is very familiar with the Spanish of the Southwest of the United States has made a study of the vocabulary of this region. In announcing his purpose he tells us that his object is to describe some of the important traits of the vocabulary of the Southwest. Of course some of the characteristics of the language of this region can be found in other sections of America where Spanish is spoken.
282. Malécot, A.: "The Color and Duration of Tonic French *a*," *LN*, VII (Nov. '57), 1-6. In order to determine the role of color and duration in differentiating French [a] and [a] in the words *palle* and *pâte*, the author has produced many synthetic syllables in which the two factors are varied systematically against each other and has presented them to a group of native French speakers for identification.
283. Marchand, J. W.: "Notes on the Origin of Some Gothic Inflectional Endings," *MLN*, LXXII (Feb. '57), 107-110. These notes include a discussion on the first person plural preterite indicative, the dative singular of the *o*-stems, and the genitive singular.
284. Nagasawa, J.: "A Study of English-Japanese Cognates," *LL*, VIII (1957-58), 53-102. Some characteristic features of English cognates in Japanese are explained; three word lists are given; the conclusion is a short discussion of the theory of selecting cognates to be used in materials for teaching foreign languages.
285. Nugroho, R.: "The Origins and Development of Bahasa Indonesia," *PMLA*, LXXII (Apr. '57), 23-28. The writer gives us an excellent history of the origin and growth of the Indonesian language and its role in the life of modern Indonesia.
286. Sereno, R.: "A Note on the Standardization of the Italian Language," *I*, XXXIV (June '57), 108-109. The rapid pace of communication development no doubt is the one most important factor of the standardization of language and of the end of dialects. The standardization follows no rule.
287. Shevelov, G.: "The Structure of the Root in Modern Russian," *SEJ*, XV (Summer '57), 106-124. It is crucial to establish that roots are primarily morphemes which are to be delimited by delimiting other morphemes. Roots may have referential meanings, but they need not have them. Let us test this by an analysis of some compounds of Modern Russian. From the point of view of referential meaning of their components, they may be classified in four groups. Attention is turned to important aspects of problems involved. Definite solutions are not given.
288. Sturtevant, A. M.: "Postconsonantal *W* in the Two Gothic Types *Skadus* 'Shadow' and *Triggws* 'Faithful,'" *GR*, XXXII (Dec. '57), 314-318. The writer of this paper restricts the problem to those types in which the *w* originally stood immediately following a consonant of the stem syllable in the noun sg. form with *s*-ending.
289. Sturtevant, A. M.: "Verner's Law in the Preterite Tense of the Gothic Reduplicating Verb *Slepan*," *MLN*, LXXII (Dec. '57), 561-563. *Slepan*, to sleep, is the only verb in Gothic which by Verner's Law preserved the shift of *s* > *z* in the preterite pl. paradigm. It is the purpose of this article to determine the factors which caused the restriction of the *z* to this one verb *slepan*.
290. Weinstein, D.: "An Answer to Dr. Chomsky," *JE*, 28 (Winter 1957-58), 24-25. In this reply Dr. Weinstein points out certain methods, techniques, etc., that Dr. Chomsky objects to in the teaching of Hebrew. See article #280.
291. Weinstein, D.: "Vocabulary Studies in Hebrew: A Review and Reevaluation," *JE*, 28 (Winter 1957-58), 13-21. The writer reviews the various methods of teaching the Hebrew language. He then says that Hebrew educators turned for guidance to the fields of general linguistic methodology and language simplification, and have drawn upon the systematic vocabulary studies conducted since the turn of the 20th century. These vocabulary studies are reviewed.

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As a result of retirement alone, well over 40% of the present staff of Latin teachers will have to be replaced in the next 15 years. . . . Moreover, in a cross-section of 80 colleges and universities, the total number of calls for Latin teachers last year was 2089, but there were only 213 qualified applicants.

Notes and News

Modern Languages in the National Defense Act of 1958

The National Defense Education Act of 1958 contains a number of provisions which are of special interest to Foreign Language Teachers. The most pertinent sections are quoted briefly below:

TYPES OF PROGRAMS

A. A program of grants to State educational agencies for projects of local educational agencies for the acquisition of laboratory or other special equipment for science, mathematics, or modern foreign language teaching in public elementary or secondary schools or junior colleges, and for minor remodeling of laboratory or other space to be used for such equipment;

B. A program of loans to nonprofit, private elementary and secondary schools for the same types of projects; and

C. A program of grants to State educational agencies for expansion or improvement of supervisory or related services in public elementary and secondary schools and junior colleges in science, mathematics, and modern foreign language instruction, and for administration of the program set forth in A, above.

Appropriations authorized: \$70 million for each of the four fiscal years 1959, 1960, 1961, 1962, is authorized to be appropriated for programs A and B. Twelve percent of the amounts appropriated for any such year are reserved for loans under program B and the remainder is available for program A.

\$5 million annually for each of these four years is authorized to be appropriated for program C grants.

Program A

Matching. States or local school systems must match Federal funds on a dollar-for-dollar basis.

State Plans. Any State desiring to receive payments under this program must submit to the Commissioner of Education, through its State educational agency, a State plan which (1) sets forth a program under which Federal funds will be expended solely for projects approved by the State agency for acquisition of laboratory or other special equipment (including audio-visual materials and equipment and printed materials, but excluding text books) suitable for use in providing education in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages in public elementary or secondary schools or junior colleges, and for minor remodeling of laboratory or other space used for such equipment; (2) sets forth principles for determining the priority of such projects in the State; (3) provides an opportunity for a hearing before the State agency to any applicant for a project; (4) provides for State standards for laboratory or other special equipment acquired with these Federal funds;

(5) sets forth a program under which funds paid to the State under program C will be expended solely for the permitted purposes; and (6) provides for necessary fiscal procedures and reports.

Program B. Loans to nonprofit, private schools

Loan conditions. Loans are made by the Commissioner to private, nonprofit elementary or secondary schools for the same purposes for which grants to States under program A can be used. The schools must make applications containing information deemed necessary by the Commissioner, the loan agreements will be subject to conditions necessary to protect the financial interest of the United States, and the loans will bear interest at a rate equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 percent plus a percentage equal to the current average yield on all outstanding marketable obligations of the United States as of the last day of the preceding month, and be repayable in not more than ten years.

Program C. Grants to States for State supervisory services

Matching. The States must match these Federal grants on a dollar-for-dollar basis for each fiscal year after the first fiscal year.

Use of Federal Funds. These grants are available solely for (a) expansion or improvement of supervisory or related services in public elementary or secondary schools in the fields of science, mathematics, engineering, and foreign language, and (b) the administration of the State plan for this program and program A.

State Plan. In order to qualify for these grants, the State must have submitted a State plan meeting the requirements for program A above.

Title VI. Modern Foreign Language Development

Types of Programs. This title authorizes two related programs:

A. Federal contracts with institutions of higher education for paying one-half of the costs of establishing and operating centers for teaching modern foreign languages (and related instruction necessary to a full understanding of the countries involved) as to which the Commissioner of Education finds that there is a national need for persons proficient in such languages, or that adequate instruction in the languages is not readily available in this country;

B. Federal contracts with institutions of higher education for short-term or regular institutes for advanced training for persons engaged in, or preparing for, teaching (or supervising or training teachers) of modern foreign languages in elementary or secondary schools.

Appropriations authorized. \$8,000,000 annually for fiscal

1959, and each of the next three years, for program A (and for Office of Education research and studies in support of this program); and \$7,250,000 for each of these years for program B.

Stipends for trainees. Trainees attending program A centers may be paid stipends in amounts determined by the Commissioner but only upon assurance that the recipients

will be available for teaching a modern foreign language in an institution of higher education or for other service of a public nature. Stipends at the rate of \$75 a week, plus \$15 for each dependent, will be paid trainees at program B institutes who are or will be engaged in teaching (or supervising or training teachers of) modern foreign languages at public elementary or secondary schools.

Russian Information Center

At a recent conference on the teaching of Russian in American high schools, conducted at MLA headquarters, it was agreed to establish a National Information Center on the Status of Russian in U. S. Schools (as an agency of AATSEEL), directed by Professor Fan Parker, Brooklyn College, Brooklyn 10, N. Y. Her institution has granted space and a small sum for clerical and mailing expenses to

collect, file, and periodically report information of a quantitative nature dealing with teaching of Russian in secondary schools. All persons with knowledge of any high school now introducing or planning to introduce Russian are urged to forward facts to her or to send the name and address of a person who may be able to provide facts.

Foreign Language in New York State

An Advisory Committee on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, headed by Associate Commissioner of Education Walter Crewson, has issued a report addressed to Superintendents of Schools and Supervising Principals of the State of New York. This committee, appointed by the Board of Regents at the request of Dr. James E. Allen, Jr., Commissioner of Education, met to advise the State Education Department on the teaching of foreign languages in both elementary and secondary schools. Below are some quotations from the five sections of this report, which is a summary of the minutes:

1. "What values does the study of foreign languages hold for the individual pupil and for society?"

"Foreign language study is inherent in the concept of a liberal education and forms an integral part of any genuine liberal arts program. It is characterized by its intellectually liberalizing qualities, contributes appreciably to the formation of a liberal point of view, is a major purveyor of notions of foreign culture, and is vital to the development of personal culture. In elementary school, pleasurable experiences in foreign language learning frequently help improve attitudes toward, and give zest for, other learning."

2. "What foreign languages should we teach in our schools, and why?"

"The program of foreign language instruction should be devoted to the major foreign languages including Russian. The general benefits to be derived will be similar no matter which foreign language is studied. Because of the fluid world situation and because of the current need for developing understanding of peoples who have differing customs and who speak different languages, any foreign language which comes within reasonable bounds of practicality in a given school district will be helpful."

3. "When should the study of foreign language begin, and why?"

"The point at which foreign language study should begin is related to the goals of that study. Pupils who for some reason wish to gain only or primarily a reading knowl-

edge of a foreign language may well begin suitable study in high school. However, the popular and reasonable demand for facility in speaking any modern foreign language cannot be met in the time available in high school, especially in view of the other basic and legitimate goals—reading, writing, cultural—of foreign language teaching and study. Further, the aural-oral aspects of language are most easily learned at an early age; it is common knowledge that children can learn to speak two languages simultaneously; specialists in speech development claim that only at an early age can children imitate accurately the sounds of all languages; it appears that continued practice of certain sounds and disuse of others makes the learning of a language involving the disused sounds increasingly difficult with the passing of time. Finally, it is desirable to "condition" children to foreignness as early as possible. For the foregoing reasons, there is widespread agreement that foreign language study should begin for many in the elementary school." The report adds however, that this matter is bound up with economic considerations, and that all schools cannot afford what might be desirable.

4. "What pupils should receive instruction in a foreign language?"

"One group favors limiting foreign language study to the more able children who have proper motivation. A middle view considers that foreign language study should be a part of elementary education and available to all pupils in the elementary grades, but should not be a requirement. A third opinion holds that the entire school population should have some foreign language instruction for its general educational and cultural value and in partial preparation for eventual adult participation in educational decisions which may well affect foreign language study."

5. "What methods should be used in the teaching of a foreign language?"

"Methodology is conceived as closely related to grade level, goals and content. Foreign language instruction in the elementary schools, whether conducted by specialists

for "gifted" children or by the grade teachers for their own pupils, should be informal, primarily oral, and as much in the foreign language as possible. . . .

"It must nevertheless be emphasized that colleges want more than oral facility from entering students. In fact, the ability to speak a modern foreign language is not essential for everyone although it is always desirable and undoubtedly helpful. Pupils who are unable to vocalize should not on that account alone be screened out but should be permitted, if they demonstrate the requisite ability, to gain the reading knowledge which they desire and which may be

helpful to their lifework. . . .

"... Since foreign language learning is basically concerned with the development of skills, the schools have the duty of providing means to maintain those skills for students, many of whom terminate their foreign language study before completion of grade 12. On the one hand New York State has the duty of providing definite and positive guidance in the establishment and development of foreign language programs in the elementary schools. On the other hand, existing State syllabi should be revised to reflect current trends and practices as well as recent research."

Changing Entrance Requirements

The College of Arts and Science of Cornell University dropped its FL entrance requirement in 1941; on 3 June 1958 the Committee on Educational Policy recommended the adoption of a new statement of entrance requirements, including three units (years) of an FL, and the faculty voted the change unanimously. The FL requirement will be effective in the fall of 1962. Furthermore, Cornell will recommend officially to school administrators that high school students be counseled to take four years of one language ("with the objective of achieving a really useful knowledge") and at least two years of another; "where the opportunity exists, students are urged to begin the study of a

foreign language in the seventh grade or earlier."

The College of Liberal Arts of the University of New Hampshire never had an FL entrance requirement; the Bulletin of General Information had carried the familiar formula requiring entering students to present "two units of either a single foreign language or of college-preparatory mathematics." Last spring the faculty voted to change the statement to: "Students entering the College of Liberal Arts will be required to present two units of a single foreign language and two units of college preparatory mathematics."

Useful Materials

Sweet Briar College has published a 31-page evaluation of its Junior Year in France; it was prepared by Francis M. Rogers (Harvard) and is called *American Juniors on the Left Bank*. . . . A 32-page reference booklet entitled *The American Student Abroad* is available free from the Council on Student Travel, 179 Broadway, New York 7. . . . *Study Abroad* is issued annually by UNESCO (UNESCO Publications Center, 801 Third Ave., New York 22); its 836 pages list more than 75,000 international scholarships. Price:

\$2.50. . . . Bulletin 1958, No. 1, *Occupational Opportunities for Students Majoring in Spanish and Portuguese*, offers valuable guidance and is available free from the Pan American Union, 19th and Constitution Ave., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. . . . Also for Spanish and Portuguese teachers is *Latin American Studies*, a 27-page teacher's guide to resource materials, available free from the Educational Section, Creole Petroleum Corp., 1230 Sixth Ave., New York 20.

MLA Fles Guides

Five MLA Teacher's Guides are now available. They are *Beginning French in Grade Three*, *French in Grade Four*, *Beginning Spanish in Grade Three*, *Continuing Spanish in Grade Four*, *Continuing Spanish in Grade Five*, *Beginning German in Grade Three*. Each Guide is the product of the cooperative efforts of a Working Committee, and each Guide was submitted to the scrutiny of a large Advisory Committee before final revisions and publication. Each Guide is \$2.50 and may be purchased from the Educational

Publishing Corporation, Darien, Conn. (not from the MLA). At present, a 12-inch 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ rpm phonograph record is available for each of three Guides, the French third-grade and fourth-grade and the Spanish third-grade books. Each record presents all of the FL in the Guide spoken by native voices, with pauses for repeating. They are for the teacher's practice, not the pupils. Records are available from the MLA office at \$5.00 each.

* * *

The Georgia State Board of Education has ruled that beginning with the school year 1958-59, all high schools in the State must offer two units in a foreign language.

Book Reviews

HARRIS, JULIAN, and LÉVÊQUE, ANDRÉ, *Basic Conversational French, Revised*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958, pp. xvii + 383 + lxxiii. Illustrated. \$3.90.

The popular text *Basic Conversational French* by Julian Harris and André Lévêque has been published in a revised edition which leaves the lessons and exercises unchanged, but alters the accessories. The original method remains. All Conversations and Grammar Units remain untouched, and the Reference Materials are also identical to those of the preceding edition through page 329, that is to say, through the regular and irregular verb forms. The Harris and Lévêque method has become so well known through the widespread use of this text that no particular comment is needed on its validity. It is based on the idea that the easiest way to learn a language is to use it, and that the process of learning to use it can be considerably accelerated by a systematic study of grammar.

The most conspicuous change in the revised edition is the incorporation of supplementary sight-reading passages which are combined with new illustrations. This is done without disturbing the original pagination. The old black-and-white illustrations of four or eight pages, inserted at irregular intervals, have been replaced by new eight-page sequences of photographs finished in a distinctive blue, inserted at regular intervals, and containing a superimposed, related reading text. The first insertion comes at page 46, and the others follow regularly every thirty-two pages thereafter. The identification of the photographs as to subject and source which formerly appeared with the illustrations themselves is replaced in the revised edition by numbers, through which they are identified in a three-page section entitled "Illustrations" at the back of the book.

The short sketches accompanying each series of illustrations use the vocabulary of previous lessons in such a way as to offer easy reading materials which "combine text, subject matter, and illustrations" and which can be comprehended without translating. The first sketch, for example, coming after the eighth conversation and the fourth grammar unit, refers to Conversations 1-5 for its situation and vocabulary. Some expansion is achieved by the use of cognates and by a sight vocabulary at the bottom of the page. The narratives are brief, brisk, and stimulating. The topics covered are the usual ones ("Arrivée à Paris," "La Cuisine française," "A la campagne," etc.), but with the appealing photographs to illustrate it, this sight-reading should be more than usually pleasant and interesting. In a somewhat revised "Introduction" the authors explain the incorporation of these simple readings as an effort to induce students to acquire a correct attitude toward reading in a foreign language and to avoid the foolish, wasteful habits so easily contracted by beginners. The authors

clearly emphasize the role of the instructor in inculcating proper attitudes in his students. Experienced teachers realize how much skill and patience it takes to launch the students in the right method of reading the foreign language, even with the best possible textbook.

The authors still recommend outside reading, preferably one of their own texts: Harris and Lévêque, *Basic French Reader*, or Harris, *French Reader for Colleges*.

There are several other changes in the supplementary materials provided with the text. The pictures on the cover have been changed. A close-up of a Café scene decorates the front cover, and a concierge glares over her spectacles from the back. The small one-page map of France inside the cover has been replaced with an attractive, more legible two-page map identical to the one inside the cover of the *Basic French Reader*.

In the Reference Materials beyond page 329, there are some minor changes and one major addition. The section "Phonetics" has been rearranged, but the only real alteration is the condensation of a seven-page "Key to the Phonetic Alphabet" to one page. The section entitled "Pronunciation" is also somewhat condensed, and is now followed by an important addition: a nineteen-page section of "Pronunciation Exercises." This is an excellent and very useful supplement. The plan behind the Pronunciation Exercises is that each of the early conversations and grammar units should be accompanied by a short explanation of, and drill upon, one or two phonetic principles. The drill is to be developed naturally from some word or phrase in the lesson. Specific instructions and examples are provided, and suggestions are given for regular review of difficult sounds. Imitation, however, is still intended as the primary method of teaching pronunciation. The instructor should, by all means, use this supplement, but he should carefully follow the authors' admonition to make the explanation and drill short and adapted to the needs of his class.

The new reading material enticingly presented with the new and current illustrations and the additional supplement on pronunciation should make this established textbook even more useful.

FRANCIS W. NACHTMANN

University of Illinois

DENOEU, FRANÇOIS, *Parmi les Meilleurs Contes*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1958, pp. vii + 298 + cviii. \$3.80.

A hasty glance at the contents of *Parmi les Meilleurs Contes* may leave one with the impression that this new reading text is mainly a collection of the twice-told tales that find their way into intermediate college French classes. If we examine the editor's preface, however, the design of

the work becomes clear and logical. Professor Denoeu makes no apology for presenting traditional favorites such as Maupassant's "En Famille," Mérimée's "Tamango," Balzac's "Un Episode sous la Terreur," and Daudet's "Le Curé de Cucugnan." Explaining this choice of material for second-year college students, who may possibly terminate their French reading with the intermediate course, the editor points out how reasonable it is that only outstanding stories of outstanding writers be presented. Moreover, the collection of pieces concentrates on the work of the four masters mentioned above—this with the intention of providing enough samples of the individual authors' craft to allow students to make a meaningful acquaintance with at least four important writers. There are five selections from Maupassant, two each from Mérimée and Balzac, and five from Daudet. In addition, there is one work each of Villiers de l'Isle-Adam (the intriguing "L'Intersigne," certainly not a usual anthology selection), of Georges Duhamel, and of J.-P. Sartre.

The text appears very workable. Each author is introduced by a brief preface presenting in simple French salient facts of biography and literary achievement. The individual selections are followed by exercise material consisting of a questionnaire, grammar drills and sentences for translation into French. An accurate and complete end-of-book French-English vocabulary—which perhaps pessimistically but certainly realistically includes words like *maison* and *fenêtre*—is coupled with an English-French glossary for the translation exercises.

Especially to be recommended are the notes which are both comprehensive and conveniently arranged (at the foot of each page). The handling of explanatory notes in a reading text is, of course, a matter of considerable importance, and the value of these notes is in direct proportion with their completeness. Professor Denoeu's treatment of difficulties of construction and allusion is managed very efficiently. It is precisely because of its conscientious editing that this text becomes a valuable source of college reading selections rather than merely a new format for largely familiar material.

Close examination of the text reveals several typographical errors: page 35, note 1, *maujure* for *maujeure*; page 111, line 31, *écoutezmoi*; page 133, line 9, *troit* *couteaux*. On page 154, line 23, reference is made to the family name *Cambremer*. To grasp the point of the phrase "leur nom le dit," a note giving the meaning of *cambrier* would be useful. The three errors and the one point which might possibly be classified as an omission are by no means typical of the quality of this superior text.

EDWARD M. COYNE

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Garden City, N. Y.

TAYLOR, JAMES L., *A Portuguese-English Dictionary*. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1958, pp. xx+655, 60,000 entries. \$11.50.

We are very happy indeed to welcome this valuable addition to Portuguese library facilities. It fills a wide lacuna in the Portuguese language area, inasmuch as there has been no coverage of this field (Portuguese-English) since 1887.

It represents, besides, the first serious attempt to cover Brazilian Portuguese, which includes many words and usages not known to the Portuguese of Portugal.

In the preparation of this medium-sized dictionary, exhaustive search of pertinent materials in both languages has been brought to bear in order to attain precise equivalents. A very interesting feature is the incorporation in this edition of the simplified and unified system of orthography now used by both Brazil and Portugal. This simplification has produced an elimination of most silent letters, and of most double letters except *rr* and *ss*, the dropping of *k*, *w*, and *y*, and almost entirely of *h*; the replacement of *ph* by *f*, and a wider use of accent marks.

The introduction contains a helpful guide for the pronunciation of the Portuguese of both Brazil and Portugal. In the absence of a nationally accepted standard in either case, the pronunciation of Lisbon and Coimbra has been used for Portugal and that of Rio de Janeiro for Brazil. To assist the users, particularly those unfamiliar with the new orthography, an explanatory table appears in the introduction which provides clues for easy location of words appearing in the older literature. Also included in the introduction is the complete bibliography of materials available in the field of lexicography as used by the author. The appendix offers tables of regular and irregular verb forms.

A large amount of the vocabulary of the arts and sciences and of the technician as well as colloquialisms has been included in the volume. In keeping with the rich abundance of Brazilian flora and fauna, vernacular names together with the Latin scientific designations of plants and animals have been supplied.

Mr. Taylor, presently Lecturer in Hispanic American Studies at Stanford University, was born in Brazil and has resided there for thirty-five years. Such prolonged saturation in a Portuguese environment eminently qualified him for this important work. He now has under way an English-Portuguese technical dictionary and also two specialized dictionaries on petroleum and metallurgy.

This new and comprehensive dictionary, a decided contribution to scholarship, is an essential volume for the shelf of anyone concerned in any way with the Portuguese language.

LEONARD P. KURTZ

University of Buffalo

GOLDSTEIN, MALCOLM. *Pope and the Augustan Stage*. Stanford Studies in Language and Literature, XVII. Pp. viii+139. Stanford University Press, 1958.

This is a work of middle flight. It does not add to our knowledge of Alexander Pope and his theater; it extends and intensifies what we already know. It will aid students of English literature who have no special experience in the field, particularly as they follow the happy hunting that goes on in *The Dunciad* and some of the *Epistles*. Contrary to the statement on the dust jacket (more worthy of a commercial than a university press), Professor Goldstein does not present "a striking new view of the poet"; and he does not claim to.

What we do have is a clear focus on the nature and the degree of Pope's occupation with the theater, his unremit-

ting concern with the stage as a school of taste and morality and his extraordinary (and unwarranted) function as grand consultant to playwrights, despite his grievously faulty judgment. One is here reminded anew of the overriding influence of politics in the English theater, of the polemics of prologues, of personal spites and surprising generosity, and above all, of a theater so throttled by imaginative sterility, so subjugated to classical models, and so dependent on rewriting the old French and English plays that it almost lost sight of its primary function—to entertain. Dryden knew this. Pope forgot it, or felt it should be altered.

The old quarrels with Dennis, Theobald, and Cibber are retraced. The old friendships are, happily, reasserted. The old, annoying problem of over-elevated language in tragedy (so that all characters talked the same) is recalled, along with Pope's failure to face up to it, although he recognized it.

Pope's concern with the theater underscores once again his intransigent stand against the anti-intellectualism of his day; and Pope scholars will at least nod in agreement.

WILLARD H. BONNER

University of Buffalo

Readings in Applied English Linguistics, edited by HAROLD B. ALLEN, Appleton-Century-Crofts, New York, 1958, pp. xiii+428. Price \$3.75.

This book is a collection of articles that have appeared in various periodicals (*College English* predominates); plus a few papers read at linguistic meetings; plus a few chapters from assorted books. Their least common denominator lies in their attempt to link linguistics (in the narrow sense of Structural Linguistics, American School variety) with the teaching of English in the high schools and colleges. There are more than forty contributors, including such widely-known names as Leonard Bloomfield, Benjamin Lee Whorf, Charles Fries, Clarence Barnhart and Mitford Mathews. The contents, while specifically directed at teachers of English, are of interest to all language teachers.

Part I, *The Historical Background*, endeavors to give a survey of grammatical and linguistic theory from the days of the Greeks to the present; it is necessarily restricted and fragmentary. Part II, *Linguistics Today*, is an attempt to explain structuralist thought to the layman. It strikes us as repetitive and monotonous. This story has been better told by many recent writers, notably Cornelius, Carroll and Gleason. Part III, *Linguistic Geography*, gives a good idea of what goes into a linguistic atlas, and should prove useful. Part IV, *Linguistics and Usage*, is largely a repetition of Part II. Part V, *Linguistics and the Teaching of Grammar and Composition*, will arouse serious controversy among English teachers. Part VI, *Linguistics and the Dictionary*, is highly uneven in quality and treatment. Part VII, *Linguistics and the Study of Literature*, will cause most literature teachers to explode. It is here that Archibald A. Hill, who at the outset of the book (*Linguistics Since Bloomfield*) voices the threat that the structuralists will invade the field of literary values, makes good his boast, with hilarious results.

The charges of authoritarianism, intolerance and icono-

clasm have sometimes been leveled at the structuralists. Are they justified? Consider these samples of language and frame of mind: "... in the belief that desirable enforcement of understanding will result" (Allen, p. vi); "the teacher who is trying to inculcate sound attitudes toward language in his students" (Allen, p. 27); "the superstitions of the past" (Fries, p. 113); "The traditional superstitious identification of the 'rules' of English grammar with the rules of a mythical 'good English' must go." (McMillan, p. 209); "They (the students) add to their vocabularies a set of terms which refer to language rather than to language superstition" (McCurdy, p. 349). Even Dykema, who writes well and displays a cultural background, nevertheless minimizes the achievements of the ancients in grammatical description (p. 4; he might profitably add R. H. Robins, *Ancient and Medieval Grammatical Theory in Europe*, Bell, London, 1951, to his sources). The same writer gives us the following pronouncement (p. 96): "The foreign student of a language . . . enters upon his task of describing it with the enormous advantage of a complete absence of any of the linguistic prejudices which the speakers of the language itself may have. His sole handicap is then an ignorance of the language."

Structuralists are sometimes accused of being obscure, even to the point of incomprehensibility. Consider these examples: "Instead of either considering the syllabics of 'beat' and 'bait' as both being diphthongs, as Pike does, or as both being diphthongs, as Trager and Smith do, he considers 'beat' as having a monophthong and 'bait' as having a diphthong" (Buell, p. 135); "I don't doubt that a list of misspellings taken from actual student papers would contain many forms like *athelete* and *drownded*, which reflect substandard variant pronunciations" (McMillan, p. 317); "One thing that they do does not help us is intrude meaning" (Lloyd, p. 334); "Large A is at contained B (its best)" (Hill, p. 404). These may be samples of bad writing, muddled thinking, or plain misprints, of which the book as a whole contains an abnormally large number. The use of nonsense-words and double talk to illustrate the point that language can be analyzed by form and function without reference to meaning grows a little tiresome at times ("He darbed the vellig a harnip," p. 115; "The ugle wogs a diggle," p. 345; *et passim*). Structuralists are responsible for the multiplication of linguistic terminology to the point where it has become almost inaccessible to its own creators; the following new terms, coined by Burnet (p. 344) will at least present no difficulty, though it is hard to see how they are an improvement on the traditional terms: *nounform*, *verbform*, *adjectiveform*, *adverbform*, *premodifier*, *postmodifier*.

That the structuralists, despite their insistence on the "facts" of language, are not always fully aware of them is shown by certain statements: "These studies assume that what is true in the determination of usage in a smaller country like England or France, with one cultural capital, is equally true for the vast United States with its cultural diversification and many cultural capitals" (Allen, p. 143). Has Allen ever bothered to observe the linguistic picture of the two smaller countries he mentions, and has he not noticed that there is infinitely greater linguistic diversity in them than in the "culturally diversified" U. S.? "Such a sentence as 'Please put some spaghettis on my plate' is

not possible in English" says Hill (p. 383). How often have we not heard and read *spaghettis* and *raviolis*, with a double plural ending? Shades of usage!

Dykema tells us (p. 96) that the only basis for exclusion of language forms is incomprehensibility; above, he cites such examples as "Them dogs are us'n's" and "I'll call you up, without I can't" as legitimate language; but I venture to say that both these phrases would be to many New Yorkers as incomprehensible as though they were couched in a foreign tongue. Elsewhere (p. 222) he says: "the term *language* I shall use in the broad sense of a group of mutually intelligible dialects." This definition of a language simply does not hold water. I have heard an Italian and a Spanish speaker getting along with each other quite well, each using his own language; a Sicilian and a Piedmontese utterly failing to understand each other; and a New York Grand Jury completely stumped by the dialect of a Southern Negro witness.

That the structuralists are sometimes mutually contradictory is exemplified in this work. Fries and others of the contributors devote many weary pages to asserting that linguistic analysis should be based on form and function, *not* meaning; then along comes Faust (p. 75) and defines a morph as "an individual linguistic form which is an individual unit of meaning," and, what is worse, proceeds to prove his point.

"Usage" is sacrosanct to the structuralists. But the application of structural analysis to usage becomes difficult in the face of Krapp's pronouncement, cited by Hartung (p. 241): "What is defended as customary use by a community, or even by a single speaker, to carry the matter to its final analysis, is standard, or conventional, or 'right,' or 'correct,' in that community or for that speaker."

Are structuralists objective? Here are three interesting pronouncements, made, to be sure, by two different members of the school. A certain non-structuralist, whose name we shall not mention lest people be tempted to look into his works, is severely taken to task by Buell (p. 135) because he approaches language "not primarily as a means to intellectual enrichment and satisfaction but as something which will pay off." Buell especially criticizes him for making this statement: "The person who speaks, easily and correctly, the standard speech of the broad language community to which he belongs will normally find himself better off all around. He will be able to express his ideas and personality and get what he wants. He will be able to make friends and influence people." Let us now turn to p. 234 where Hartung describes Robert Hall's *Leave Your Language Alone!* as "justly praised," and proceeds to praise him further for making it "amply clear that one conforms to standards under social penalty"; then turn to p. 235-6, where Hartung approves of the use of language "to increase one's popularity and effectiveness" and lavishes praise upon another member of the fraternity, Donald Lloyd, who is quoted as justifying the use of language forms on the ground they help us to make friends wherever we go." Advocating utilitarianism in language is, it seems, a virtue or a vice, according to the identity of the advocate and his link (or lack thereof) with the structuralist school.

All sorts of people, from the ancient Greek grammarians to the modern mentalists, incur the scorn of the structural writers. One name, occasionally and non-committally cited in this work, remains miraculously unscathed—that of Fowler, stuffiest, most traditional and most arbitrary of oldline grammarians. Somehow, he never elicits a word of criticism from our iconoclasts of past "superstitions." We wonder why.

On the positive side, what have our writers to offer? A generally good discussion of the linguistic atlas and its applications (one important point, barely hinted at by Hill, p. 161, is that the Atlas needs constant revision, because local speech-forms change with the passing of time). The discovery and classification of the so-called suprasegmental phonemes (phenomena of tempo, pitch, stress and juncture) described by Dykema (p. 44) and Ives (p. 186) are among the major positive achievements of the structuralists, and language teachers in general would do well to study them, since their proper application is highly conducive to sounding like a native in whatever language one is learning. We should also like to call attention to Dykema's excellent discussion (p. 223) of the time-spread that is consumed in the course of a language change, with the conclusion that an older and a newer form may coexist for centuries before the former is completely replaced by the latter.

Lastly, we should like to voice two suggestions to the structuralists. Atwood (p. 160) reminds us that Henry Lee Smith has never published the material that formed the basis of his intensely interesting radio program "Where Are You From?", in which he almost infallibly localized unknown guests by their pronunciation of certain key words. This, it seems to us, is the sort of thing that would really arouse popular interest in structural linguistics. Why not have it?

For linguistic atlas field work, would it not be possible to devise a pocket recording machine that would put down, in audible fashion, pronunciations of individual words that could later be analyzed on the language spectrograph, instead of relying on the ear and phonetic transcription of the field worker? Tape and wire recordings of longer passages, usually read by the subject, abound. What we are referring to is a gadget that could be carried by the worker, preferably out of sight, be turned on when the subject pronounces his word, then immediately turned off, to be used again later with another subject in connection with the same word or expression, so that at the end we would have a complete audible recording of the word or expression for the entire region, similar to a page of the Atlas itself.

Since the beginning of history, man has had to rely on writing because there was no way of reproducing and preserving the living voice. Writing is basically a substitute for speech, but it has the advantage of being permanent. *Verba volant, scripta manent* said the Romans. Today we possess the mechanical means of giving permanence to the spoken word. Does that mean that writing, having served its historical purpose, will eventually disappear? Time alone will tell.

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